THE

# LITERARY MAGAZINE,

AND

# AMERICAN REGISTER.

No. 37. OCTOBER, 1806. VOL. VI.

*FOR THE LITERARY MAGAZINE.*

## THE VALUE OF BEAUTY.

I AM going to ask you a strange question, said I, to a very beautiful woman: Do you think yourself beautiful? answer me, if possible, with candour.

I will do so, said she: I will not reply with a jest or an evasion, or a laugh or a frown, but will tell you, in simple truth, I *do* think myself handsome. If I look into my glass, I behold features which I am sure I should admire in any other person. Nobody ever delivered an opinion of my person, so far as my knowledge extends, which was not favourable. I have often, while passing the street, or standing at a window, caught the eye of a passenger, but if he looked once he was sure to look a second time, and the expression of his countenance clearly informed me that he admired what he saw. I have, times without number, been told that I was beautiful, but never remember to have been told that I was ugly or even plain. My sister who resembled me so much that few people could tell us apart, always appeared beautiful in my eyes, and, so far as I could judge of other people's sentiments, always appeared so to others: and as all this has been uniformly and invariably the case, ever since I reached the age when I was first able to judge of beauty, or to understand others, I conclude, with the utmost confidence, that I am beautiful.—There now; you wanted a candid answer, and I think I have given you one.

And does this persuasion contribute any thing to your happiness?

I can hardly tell you that. The value of any thing, you know, can seldom be judged of by those, who have not likewise experienced the want of it. When age, or casualty, or disease makes me ugly, I shall then be able to tell you whether any part of my present happiness arises from possessing beauty. Till then, it is impossible.

But cannot you judge of its value by the conduct or feelings of those who want it?

I have often heard women say: what would I give to be beautiful! How happy I should be if I could exchange this rough face, or this awkward shape for such a skin or such

a person as yours, miss O.! These wishes once led me to imagine that beauty was a blessing; but this notion was greatly weakened, when I observed as much general cheerfulness and good humour in those plain girls as in any other. They seemed to be as much prized and beloved by their parents and friends, and they acquired the affections of valuable men as soon as they could reasonably wish. On the contrary, when I examined the character and history of those who were commonly reputed beautiful, I have generally found a childish folly, a disgusting haughtiness, a provoking caprice, terminating in guilt or misfortune. I have observed that some of their follies and disasters have arisen from their very beauty, which their narrow understanding has considered as a substitute for every other merit, though, in the actual course of human affairs, it appears to have little or no permanent value.

But do not you derive some pleasure, said I, from that homage and admiration which every where follow you?

I once did, but many circumstances have changed my pleasure either into indifference or pain. Fame becomes indifferent or insipid as soon as it becomes customary and familiar; and this is as true, nay, perhaps, truer, of a reputation for beauty than of any other kind of celebrity. Besides, the homage which my beauty obtains rather mortifies and humbles, than delights or elevates me. I find it almost wholly evinced by impudent staring, and impertinently following. It attracts the gaze of every body, at first sight, but those who have seen me often no longer stare, and the wise and worthy, those whose homage I should value, content themselves with merely staring, while the personal attentions of the less worthy appear to be prompted by nothing further than the outside. The homage and benefits which beauty obtains, in my opinion, constitute the strongest argument against it, since beauty cannot last for ever, and is generally very short lived, and hence we are certain of one day losing the one with the other. What mere beauty has gained, beauty only can keep. A woman that is at once beautiful and rational, and who is loved by a man of worth, is much less fortunate than the plain woman in like circumstances, since the beauty must believe that her charms have had some influence in attracting her lover, and consequently that when time, sickness or familiarity destroys these charms, the husband may cease to love; whereas the homely girl may solace herself with thinking that she is loved for that which cannot be impaired by such accidents. Hence it is that I have long considered beauty as the bane of virtue and happiness.

The greater, then, must be the merit of those who, like you, retain their virtue in spite of the baneful influence of their beauty, and the greater their good fortune who are as happy as others, though more liable than others to misery: but really it seems to be a manifest perversion of language to call *beauty* a *defect*. There are forms and faces that possess what is vulgarly termed beauty, but it is of a kind necessarily transient, and can only attract those whose regard is either worthless or hurtful: but have you never been told that your beauty is of that sort which harmonizes most eloquently with a beautiful mind; and can never fade as long as the heart and understanding continue the same?

Believe me, she replied, if I have the beauty you speak of, it is not *that* which purchases a single gaze or compliment. It chances to be united with the *fair* and the *smooth*, the qualities which constitute what you call vulgar beauty, and which will inevitably take their flight in company with health and youth.

Let them go, said I, as soon as they will. They will leave behind them that eternal beauty which, even when left to itself, must and ought to enchant every rational observer, and which, even when the smooth and

fair are combined with it, constitutes your sole, divine, unfading, and irresistible charm in such eyes.

O.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## MANY MEN, MANY MINDS.

MANY men, many minds, says the proverb. This is true in every sense, in relation to all subjects, moral, political, and religious, and even in our judgments of sensible objects. No two men feel or see the same external, visible, or tangible objects in the same light. So different, indeed, are the impressions made on the senses of different men by the same objects, that we are sometimes irresistibly impelled to say that some men possess a sense intrinsically different from those of other men. There is indeed a discriminating power, created as it were by practice and experience, in relation to sensible objects, that is truly surprising. The sportsman sees a woodcock or squirrel, where his contemplative companion, naturally sharp-sighted as he, can see nothing but a piece of bark or a cluster of leaves. The blind man passes his forefinger over a perforated piece of copper or tin, and exclaims that the holes are not at equal distances, that their diame ters are not the same, and that some are square, some hexagonal, some oval, but that none are perfectly round, while his clear-sighted neighbour can only discover a number of holes drilled in a metallic plate by the finest needle, all which, to his nicest scrutiny, appear exactly alike*.

I have often been amused with the different opinions formed of the *apparent* size of the moon. Nobody without experience would imagine there was any difference between men in this particular; but when he comes to investigate the matter, he finds that to one it appears as large as a dollar; to another as big as his hand; to a third it has the size of his hat; and so on to an infinite variety.

Men who are short-sighted in a small degree, either originally or by habit, do not commonly make the discovery very early. They are not aware, till some accident suggest a comparison between their own accuracy of vision and that of others, that they see less, or more imperfectly than their neighbours. In many cases, but, strange as it may seem, not in all, myopism may be read in the shape of the eye, and therefore men may obtain the information of their own ocular defects from others, as soon as they are capable of comprehending it. In cases where this defect is not visible in the exterior shape of the eye, any suspicion we may form concerning ourselves is sometimes repressed by the assurances of others, who pretend to judge on such occasions by the shape of the organ.

My own case is an illustration and a proof of this last remark. I was eighteen years of age before I discovered that I could not see as far and as keenly as my friends. Then, the mere accident of putting on a pair of spectacles, which enabled me to discover that a lady, on the opposite side of the street, had red hair instead of brown, as I had previously imagined, disclosed the secret to me of my own myopism. On inquiry I found, to my great surprise, that my neighbours had long enjoyed a privilege of which I was wholly destitute, without being conscious of my forlorn condition. I had often heard of the man in the moon, but I never suspected that this noted personage had precluded all doubts of his existence, by actually staring in the face of every one who turned his eyes upon that luminary. I never dreamed that the chief lineaments of this gigantic face, the eyes, nose, mouth, were plainly to be seen by every long-sighted beholder, in the round disk of a full moon. I thought the belief of his translation was

* This circumstance actually occurred in this city, to the once famous Dr. Moyes.

founded only on the report of those ancient and grave annalists, whose industry and veracity have rescued from oblivion the memorable exploits of Jack the Gianticide, and the swallow-tamer Tom Thumb. As soon as I put on spectacles, my mind was completely illuminated on this important subject; and, to speak gravely, those mountains and gulphs in the lunar disk, which, in their local relation, bear a fantastic resemblance to the human lineaments, were suddenly unveiled to my view, though, till then, I had never seen any thing in that orb, but a dull, uniform brightness.

But though it be possible, by the the aid of optical instruments, to enable you to see external objects as clearly, perhaps, though not exactly in the same light as the majority of your neighbours, widely different is it with regard to intellectual objects, and to the eye of the mind. There are no spectacles for mental myopism. There are no such accidents as that above described, which suggest the existence of former darkness by its contrast to present light. Without doubt, there is a progress in the history of many minds in this respect. They see more sides of a subject, more of the scope of an argument or a system, to-day than they did yesterday. Former errors are detected and deplored; but surely, surely, to see the whole truth of things; to enter fully into all the arguments relative to many interesting topics, is Impossibility himself, or one of his neighbours.

Absolute scepticism, if it were possible, is equally foolish and unnecessary. An impartial mind, when it contemplates the variety of systems and opinions current in the world, may sometimes be induced desperately to unloose its hold of every system, and suffer itself to fall, like the shapeless and rudderless log, down every changeful and capricious tide; but this is absurd and pernicious. The true lesson to be learned from the *many minds of many men* is not sloth, despair, and incredulity, but, first, an invincible charity and forbearance towards the holders of adverse opinions and repugnant systems; and, secondly, an inflexible resolution to pursue truth for its own sake, to keep the mind ever open to conviction, ever accessible to argument; meanwhile, steadily maintaining and practising the opinion which, for whatever reason, appears, at present, to have most of truth, to be nearest certainty.

A.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THE ADVERSARIA,

*Or Winter Evening Amusements.*

NO. XVIII.

Come, EVENING, once again, season of peace;
Return, sweet Evening, and continue long!
Come then, and thou shalt find thy vot'ry calm,
Or make him so. Composure is thy gift;
And whether I devote thy gentle hours
To books, to music, or the poet's toil;
* * * * * * * * * * * * *
Or twining silken threads round iv'ry reels,
*When they command whom man was born to please,*
I slight thee not, but make thee welcome still.

COWPER.

NOTWITHSTANDING all the learning and information that may be found in the works of sir THOMAS BROWNE, I believe his ponderous volumes are now scarcely opened but by some curious reader who would examine the style which Johnson did not disdain to imitate. I confess it was this single object which induced me to delve into what I consider a rich mine of English phraseology. Although it was the ambition of sir Thomas to introduce as many exotic terms into our language as possible, and that in the prosecution of this design his taste

has been by no means fastidious, he has yet, by a happy temerity which belongs only to genius, occasionally hit upon single words and expressions which are singularly felicitous. But in general, it must be admitted, his affectation involves his understanding in such a maze of intricacy, or throws such a glare of ridicule around it, that we close the volume with a mixture of laughter and contempt. Dr. Johnson, with his accustomed acumen, describes the style of Browne as "vigorous, but rugged; it is learned," he says, "but pedantic; it is deep, but obscure; it strikes, but does not please; it commands, but does not allure: his tropes are harsh, and his combinations uncouth."

To the writer on philosophical subjects we must grant the use of erudite or technical terms, when they are appropriate and significant, or pursue his meaning through a labyrinth of circumlocution that would weary and disgust, and defeat the very purpose of language.

Man, it has truly been said, is an imitative animal; and many who could not attain the learning of Browne, could yet surpass him in eccentricity. In the following quotation, the writer has copied all his defects with as much fidelity as the Chinese painter, who introduced a patch in one of his portraits. Terms of art are forcibly taken from their natural places to describe the most common operations of nature, and the words thus oddly jumbled together seem to stare at each other with as much surprise as if they did not belong to the same language; while the reader is as much diverted as we are told the spectator was.

The versatile genius of *the admirable Crichton*, as he was called, has been made familiar to modern readers by one of our classical essayists.

It seems that he once composed a drama in the Italian language, which included no less than fifteen characters. To evince the versatility of his powers, he personated the whole of the *dramatis personæ* himself, and his success in the attempt is thus described by his biographer, sir Thomas Urquhart.

The logofascinated spirits of the beholding hearers and auricularie spectators, were so on a sudden seized upon, in the risible faculties of the soul, and all their vital motions so universally affected in this extremity of agitation, that, to avoid the inevitable charms of his intoxicating ejaculations, and the accumulative influences of so powerful a transportation, one of my lady dutchess's chief maids of honour, by the vehemence of the shocks of these incomprehensible raptures, burste forth into a laughter, to the rupture of a vein in her bodie, &c.

And another young lady it seems, not being able to support the well beloved burthen of so excessive delight and entrancing joyes of such mercurial exhilarations, through the ineffable extatic of overmastered apprehension, fell back in a swoon, without the appearance of any other life in her than what, by the most refined wits of theological spectators, is conceived to be exerced by the purest parts of the separated entelechies of blessed saint, in their sublimest conversations with the celestial hierarchies.

—

Sir RICHARD STEELE is the author of a few lines which his accomplished coadjutor never surpassed.

The most active principle in our minds is the imagination; and a good poet makes his court perpetually to it. In a word, the poets do, as it were, strew the rough paths of virtue so full of fragrant flowers, that we are not sensible of the uneasiness of them; and imagine ourselves in the midst of pleasures and the most bewitching allurements, at the time we are making progress in the severest duties of life.—*Tatler.*

—

One of the most entertaining tourists I have lately met with, of whom indeed I am inclined to say with Dr. Johnson, "I wish that to travel and

distance, but it is seldom necessary to wait five minutes, before one of the numerous dead arrives, when the gate is opened. On entering, you see to the left a sandy elevation of the natural soil, declining towards the west. The coffin is let down on the edge of this declivity to a shelf at a small depth, and covered with a few shovels full of sand. A husband, wife, or relation, gives a parting look, sheds a few tears, and turns away. If the body come from an hospital, it is only inclosed in a sack, and borne by two men on a hand-bier, over which two half hoops support a linen cloth. Aware of the indecency of this slight inhumation, the sexton will not permit you to go so far as to command a view of the declivity, interspersed with coffins and sacks. But the smell is offensive at the distance of forty or fifty yards, if the wind blow from the cemetery. Respect is due to the dead, and greater decency would be commendable. The rapidity with which the burials are hastened also deserves reprobation, the bodies never being kept above twenty-four hours, so that the death can scarcely be ascertained; the bodies are, however, exposed in the gateway of the hotel, with tapers and holy water, which is sprinkled over the coffin by the devout visitants.

Towards the right, or eastern part of the church-yard of Mont Martre, there is a little deep vale, planted with weeping willows and shrubs, interspersed with neat tombs of stone. This part is reserved for those of a superior class, and the epitaphs in French are sometimes elegantly concise.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THE PUBLIC BATHS AT PARIS.

*By Mr. Pinkerton.*

IN no species of salutary luxury, does London yield so much to Paris, as in the article of baths. In the English capital, they are not only rare, but constructed on a most inconvenient and unhealthy plan. In the French baths, the chambers are very small, about ten feet by six, the height being about seven feet, so that there is no risque of catching cold. The tubs, of tinned copper, also retain the warmth; while our marble baths in large apartments seem contrived for the sake of inconvenience. But a description of the French baths will form the best contrast.

Besides the Chinese baths on the Boulevards, and others in various parts of the capital, the principal and most frequented are those which float on the river itself. These may be had at all prices: and there are even temporary baths erected with awnings, in the heat of summer, that the women may enjoy the refreshment of the water. But the chief are those of Vigier and Poitevin, which are said to belong to the same company of proprietors.

Those of Vigier, the most frequented of any, constitute a wooden edifice, the size of a man of war of one hundred and forty guns, which contains, in two floors, one hundred and forty bathing chambers, often entirely full, especially from five in the morning till nine. As the waiters and female servants are paid by the bathers, it is supposed that the clear gain is not less than fifty thousand francs, or more than two thousand pounds, a year. Each person pays fifteen pence, or less on subscribing for half a dozen times; each towel costs one penny, and you give twopence or three-pence to the waiter. This cheapness is the chief cause of the great gain, as many people go every day; while five shillings for a London bath becomes an object, not to mention five guineas, which a prudent person would lay aside, in order to pay for the cure of the cold which he is about to catch.

This large edifice is accompanied with a smaller, in the form of a rotunda, in which a horse is occupied in turning a machine for raising the water. It is generally moored with strong

tables above the bridge of the Thuilleries; but in December, when the danger of the driving ice begins to be apprehended, it is floated down beneath the bridge, of which the side arch presents a barrier of strong beams, as a security against all injury. Early in the spring the baths resume their station, and are decorated with verdure and flowers.

On descending a long flight of steps from the quay, you find yourself in a little garden by the side of the river, with a neat gravel walk amidst flowers and shrubs. Hence a little bridge conveys you to the baths. There are covered galleries on either side, with flowers and sweet-smelling plants, where you can sit or walk till your turn come, if the baths be full. At the end of this gallery, is a little temple of Cloacina, inscribed with the words C'est ici, "It is here." The entrance on the right hand is for the women; and on the left for the men; and the most complete decency is observed. You pass into a long gallery, into which the bathing chambers open, and divided from that on the women's side only by a large square of plate glass; but as the ladies seldom wait in the gallery, this advantage little enlivens the prospect. This gallery, which is painted in imitation of white and red marble, with pillars of *verde antique*, presents a barometer and thermometer, and contains large stoves for warming the linen, which, unless countermanded, is always presented quite hot. The prices of the various articles which may be had in the baths, such as coffee, tea, chocolate, new laid eggs, soup, wine, &c., are all pasted up in various places. On entering your chamber, your bath is carefully cleansed with warm water and a sponge, which you may insist on seeing done, according to the fixed regulations.—You then mention the temperature you wish, and the bath is instantly filled. In it you sit at your ease, and it is common to read the newspapers. After a quarter of an hour, for the French physicians do not permit the use of the bath after a meal, upon ringing the bell you may have what refreshment you chuse, which is served on a board of cork, swimming in the water. The time is generally an hour, sometimes an hour and a half, and some will remain two hours.

In the baths Poitevin, which are on the other side of the river, you pay forty sous, or twenty pence; but this includes the linen, which, here, is always complete, that is, the tub is lined with a sheet, and when you ring for your linen, the waiter attends you with a *peignoir*, drying robe, &c., and lends you his assistance.

Between the bridge of Thuilleries and that of Concord, is the school for swimming, which may also be regarded as a cold bath. Here a floating arcade, with little chambers for undressing, incloses a little square spot of the river itself. There are men with ropes to assist the learners, among whom are sometimes *petites maîtresses*, or Parisian belles, who begin in the military way to ride, swim, and breakfast on beefstakes. They are, however, accoutred with decency; and wanton curiosity would find little gratification. Many use this bath in the evening, after dinner, without any impediment to their digestion, so that the axiom of the French physicians may admit of doubts.

A bath absolutely cold, in a chamber, is scarcely known in France, except in cases of phrenzy, when iced water has been found of singular efficacy. The French physicians also regard sea bath as merely a dubious remedy for the bite of a mad dog; or what, perhaps, is as common in France, for that of a mad wolf. So general is this idea, that a man of the law having embraced an advantageous offer in the marine, an old lady, upon hearing he was going to sea, exclaimed with great simplicity, "Poor man! has he been bit by a mad dog?" Our custom of plunging in head foremost is likewise reprobated in France, where it is thought alike unnatural

to relate what he saw had been more his business," gives the following brief account of a visit to the tomb of an Italian poet.

On Saturday I made an interesting excursion to Arqua, to visit the tomb and residence of Petrarch.—It is a small village delightfully situated in the neighbourhood of the Eugenean mountains, and not far from the hot-baths of Albano.—The residence of the charming poet is now untenanted; it was shown me by an old woman, who seemed to be perfectly insensible to the value of the treasure of which she kept the key.

The walls of the rooms were almost covered with the scribblings of those who had visited the retirement of this sweet, this favourite bard. His cap, his wardrobe, his elbow-chair, and a bust of his Laura, are still saved from the grasp of time, and shown to the curious traveller. I wrote my name on the walls of his study, and came away. I then went to the church-yard to visit his tomb, of which I took a slight shetch: the date upon it I observed to be 1374. I next saw the chapel, and enjoyed the luxury of kneeling at that very altar, which had been hallowed by the presence of the tender, the elegant, the accomplished Petrarch.

—

A friend of mine, who is fonder of Dryden than Blackstone, and who courts the nine muses more willingly than the twelve judges, has given me a sheet from a manuscript volume, with which I shall conclude *this evening's amusements.*

ON LEYRID'S RETIREMENT INTO THE COUNTRY.

Where lofty forests wave their heads,
And flowrets deck the lowly meads;
Where bold Ilissus rolls along,
In current rapid, clear, and strong;
His waves in rich luxuriance rise,
When gentle zephyrs breathe their sighs;
Where lavish Nature throws around
Whate'er can charm the fairy ground;
And where bright Hope and Joy are ever seen,
And Peace, and Love, and calm Content, with placid mein:

Where summer's suns, with gentle fire,
Shine but to warm—and then retire,
To welcome Autumn's fruitful brow,
Or Winter's not ungenial snow,
And then with gladness swiftly bring
The verdure of the teeming Spring
(Spring—the season of the rose,
When the young ivy round it grows;
And woodbines then their curling tendrils join,
In soft and tender union, with some wreathing vine):

There Leyrid lives, remote from noise,
And rural scenes of peace enjoys;
With those whose fond paternal care
Has polish'd bright the lovely fair;
With those who oft delight to trace
Good-nature beaming in her face;
And love to survey in her mind
All the virtues there combined;
All that with fond delight the poet feigns,
When Love inflames and Fancy thrills his raptured strains.

With friends like these how swiftly glide
The current of life's rapid tide!
How do they sweeten life's dull hour,
How cheer those clouds that often low'r,
When pale Misfortune's palsying hand
O'er Joy and Peace waves high her wand.
Then Friendship's face serenely smiles,
And Sorrow of her pain beguiles.
They make past joys in quick succession rise,
And charm once more the raptur'd gazer's tear-dew'd eyes.

Oh, ye kind Gods ! who ne'er disdain
To calm our fears and ease our pain ;
Oh listen to my fervent pray'r !
From harm protect my favoured fair.
May LEYRID's heart ne'er feel how keen
The cruel shaft that strikes unseen,
And in an instant clouds the scene,
That sparkled, late, with joy serene
And may she yet avoid pale Envy's flame,
And still preserve, with conscience pure, bright Virtue's name.

May Fancy to her fav'rite child,
Still teach her *native wood-notes wild.*
And Genius crown, with fadeless bays,
The maid who weaves her winning lays.
E'en now, untaught by Wisdom's years,
Her polish'd numbers please our ears ;
What then, when more matur'd by time,
Shall be her muse's riper rhyme ?
Did but Prediction's voice to me belong,
Each Muse and every Grace would love to claim her song.

May she with deep fix'd scorn deride
The weakness of a silly pride ;
Ne'er may she hear base Flatt'ry's theme,
And idly list the soothing dream.
For Flatt'ry, like the poison'd bowl,
First soothes and then destroys the soul.
But to avert the feather'd dart,
And safely shield a *female* heart,
May learning grave her curious mind engage
To pore with toil unwearied o'er the instructive page.

Next shall my feeble pen pourtray,
In artless numbers of the lay ?
Oh ! then how fondly would I trace
The features of a lovely face.
May each fair lineament declare
That native worth is hidden there.
Give to her cheek the tint that glows
And blushes in the morning rose.
Exert, ye fav'ring Gods your happiest art,
To give those charms that win and firmly bind the heart.

I. E. H.

*Baltimore.*

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## FRENCH BURYING PLACES.

*By Mr. Pinkerton.*

BEFORE the revolution, the burying-places in Paris were not numerous, the burials being often in the churches themselves. The churchyard of the Innocents was the largest and most remarkable, a predilection for its presumed holiness having been adopted by the devout. In consequence of this, it was so crowded with bodies, as to infect the cellars in the neighbourhood, and to threaten a disgusting rupture of the walls: the bodies were therefore removed during successive nights, and the whole paved and reduced to the level of the streets.—The reports on this subject are curious, but severe lessons of humiliation.

Since the salutary law, ordaining that the dead should not be buried in the churches, nor even in the city, only two cemeteries are open for this populous capital. One of these is at Clamart, beyond the Garden o Plants, which serves for the southern half of the city, including the Hotel Dieu ; the other, serving for the northern half, though this be arbitrary, is in a small irregular vale on the southern declivity of Mont Martre.

The latter repository is not only in a picturesque situation, but variegated by the unevenness of the ground ; it is surrounded with a wall of moulded clay, capped with flat tiles, to protect it from the weather, and supported by so many buttresses, that probably a stone wall could have been erected at an equal expense. The sexton lives at some

distance, but it is seldom necessary to wait five minutes, before one of the numerous dead arrives, when the gate is opened. On entering, you see to the left a sandy elevation of the natural soil, declining towards the west. The coffin is let down on the edge of this declivity to a shelf at a small depth, and covered with a few shovels full of sand. A husband, wife, or relation, gives a parting look, sheds a few tears, and turns away. If the body come from an hospital, it is only inclosed in a sack, and borne by two men on a hand-bier, over which two half hoops support a linen cloth. Aware of the indecency of this slight inhumation, the sexton will not permit you to go so far as to command a view of the declivity, interspersed with coffins and sacks. But the smell is offensive at the distance of forty or fifty yards, if the wind blow from the cemetery. Respect is due to the dead, and greater decency would be commendable. The rapidity with which the burials are hastened also deserves reprobation, the bodies never being kept above twenty-four hours, so that the death can scarcely be ascertained; the bodies are, however, exposed in the gateway of the hotel, with tapers and holy water, which is sprinkled over the coffin by the devout visitants.

Towards the right, or eastern part of the church-yard of Mont Martre, there is a little deep vale, planted with weeping willows and shrubs, interspersed with neat tombs of stone. This part is reserved for those of a superior class, and the epitaphs in French are sometimes elegantly concise.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THE PUBLIC BATHS AT PARIS.

*By Mr. Pinkerton.*

IN no species of salutary luxury, does London yield so much to Paris, as in the article of baths. In the English capital, they are not only rare, but constructed on a most inconvenient and unhealthy plan. In the French baths, the chambers are very small, about ten feet by six, the height being about seven feet, so that there is no risque of catching cold. The tubs, of tinned copper, also retain the warmth; while our marble baths in large apartments seem contrived for the sake of inconvenience. But a description of the French baths will form the best contrast.

Besides the Chinese baths on the Boulevards, and others in various parts of the capital, the principal and most frequented are those which float on the river itself. These may be had at all prices: and there are even temporary baths erected with awnings, in the heat of summer, that the women may enjoy the refreshment of the water. But the chief are those of Vigier and Poitevin, which are said to belong to the same company of proprietors.

Those of Vigier, the most frequented of any, constitute a wooden edifice, the size of a man of war of one hundred and forty guns, which contains, in two floors, one hundred and forty bathing chambers, often entirely full, especially from five in the morning till nine. As the waiters and female servants are paid by the bathers, it is supposed that the clear gain is not less than fifty thousand francs, or more than two thousand pounds, a year. Each person pays fifteen pence, or less on subscribing for half a dozen times; each towel costs one penny, and you give twopence or three-pence to the waiter. This cheapness is the chief cause of the great gain, as many people go every day; while five shillings for a London bath becomes an object, not to mention five guineas, which a prudent person would lay aside, in order to pay for the cure of the cold which he is about to catch.

This large edifice is accompanied with a smaller, in the form of a rotunda, in which a horse is occupied in turning a machine for raising the water. It is generally moored with strong

tables above the bridge of the Thuilleries; but in December, when the danger of the driving ice begins to be apprehended, it is floated down beneath the bridge, of which the side arch presents a barrier of strong beams, as a security against all injury. Early in the spring the baths resume their station, and are decorated with verdure and flowers.

On descending a long flight of steps from the quay, you find yourself in a little garden by the side of the river, with a neat gravel walk amidst flowers and shrubs. Hence a little bridge conveys you to the baths. There are covered galleries on either side, with flowers and sweet-smelling plants, where you can sit or walk till your turn come, if the baths be full. At the end of this gallery, is a little temple of Cloacina, inscribed with the words C'est ici, "It is here." The entrance on the right hand is for the women; and on the left for the men; and the most complete decency is observed. You pass into a long gallery, into which the bathing chambers open, and divided from that on the women's side only by a large square of plate glass; but as the ladies seldom wait in the gallery, this advantage little enlivens the prospect. This gallery, which is painted in imitation of white and red marble, with pillars of *verde antique*, presents a barometer and thermometer, and contains large stoves for warming the linen, which, unless countermanded, is always presented quite hot. The prices of the various articles which may be had in the baths, such as coffee, tea, chocolate, new laid eggs, soup, wine, &c., are all pasted up in various places. On entering your chamber, your bath is carefully cleansed with warm water and a sponge, which you may insist on seeing done, according to the fixed regulations.—You then mention the temperature you wish, and the bath is instantly filled. In it you sit at your ease, and it is common to read the newspapers. After a quarter of an hour, for the French physicians do not permit the use of the bath after a meal, upon ringing the bell you may have what refreshment you chuse, which is served on a board of cork, swimming in the water. The time is generally an hour, sometimes an hour and a half, and some will remain two hours.

In the baths Poitevin, which are on the other side of the river, you pay forty sous, or twenty pence; but this includes the linen, which, here, is always complete, that is, the tub is lined with a sheet, and when you ring for your linen, the waiter attends you with a *peignoir*, drying robe, &c., and lends you his assistance.

Between the bridge of Thuilleries and that of Concord, is the school for swimming, which may also be regarded as a cold bath. Here a floating arcade, with little chambers for undressing, incloses a little square spot of the river itself. There are men with ropes to assist the learners, among whom are sometimes *petites maîtresses*, or Parisian belles, who begin in the military way to ride, swim, and breakfast on beefstakes. They are, however, accoutred with decency; and wanton curiosity would find little gratification. Many use this bath in the evening, after dinner, without any impediment to their digestion, so that the axiom of the French physicians may admit of doubts.

A bath absolutely cold, in a chamber, is scarcely known in France, except in cases of phrenzy, when iced water has been found of singular efficacy. The French physicians also regard sea bath as merely a dubious remedy for the bite of a mad dog; or what, perhaps, is as common in France, for that of a mad wolf. So general is this idea, that a man of the law having embraced an advantageous offer in the marine, an old lady, upon hearing he was going to sea, exclaimed with great simplicity, "Poor man! has he been bit by a mad dog?" Our custom of plunging in head foremost is likewise reprobated in France, where it is thought alike unnatural

and unhealthy. In fact, savages and peasants walk into the river or the sea, and the repercussion of the blood from the head, is followed by its return in greater force. The use of the warm bath, even in the hottest climates, has been found far more advantageous than that of the cold; and Dolomica observed, that in Sicily the latter afforded no refreshment, while by rising repeatedly in the warm bath, he produced, by the evaporation from the skin, a delicate coolness and accession of vigour. The first shock of the cold water, here so much extolled, that some medical men regard it as the sole object, is in France esteemed a mere caprice; the purpose being by the absorption of the water, or at least its contiguity, during an entire hour, to cool the blood, fortify the nerves, and restore the animal spirits. So far as I can judge by my own experience, the truth forces me to say, that I never received any advantage whatever from our modes of bathing, with a shower bath, the cold, or the sea, or even a warm bath in the London fashion; but I never returned from a Parisian bath of an hour or more, without feeling a marked increase of appetite and health. In these baths, it is very rare to dip the head at all; and the circulation of the blood renders this a most unnecessary ceremony. It has been observed, that the health of the inhabitants at Paris has been greatly improved since the institution of numerous baths, which are particularly salutary in nervous diseases, and others arising from a sedentary life, so commonly followed in great capitals.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## A SKETCH OF PITTSBURGH.

THE lands in the vicinity of Pittsburgh, especially the bottoms on the Alleghany, are very rich. When this town was a frontier settlement against hostile Indians, the lands, in consequence, sold very low. A few years since a Mr. Wood first surveyed this country, and was offered an extensive tract of it gratis, which he refused. His son has since purchased a considerable farm in the neighbourhood of Pittsburgh, and erected a very handsome brick house at the entrance of the town.

Pittsburgh is irregularly built; the streets are narrow, and the houses have the dirty, smoaked appearance of English cities where coals are most used. It is situate on a plain, running to a point, at which the clear stream of the Alleghany and the muddy waters of the Monongahela unite and form a beautiful bason, the source of the far-famed Ohio, or *Belle Rivière* of the French, which, after running 1183 miles, empties itself into the Mississippi.

The Alleghany is at Pittsburgh about a quarter of a mile wide, and runs at the rate of about four miles an hour. The Monongahela is about half a mile wide, its waters being forced back by the more impetuous stream of the Alleghany. At the confluence of these rivers the French erected a fort, which was captured by the English under general Forbes, in November, 1758. It was soon afterwards abandoned, and one higher up the Alleghany erected, which is now in existence. At the point where the rivers meet, the cliff rises about twenty feet above the waters, the Monongahela bearing a south-east, and the Alleghany a north-east direction. Soon after the capture by the British, the town was laid out, named after the elder William Pitt. About seven miles to the S. E. of this town is the field celebrated for the defeat of general Braddock.

Pittsburgh is extremely well supplied with excellent coal, at least as good as the Carmel coal, which are delivered at the houses in town at the rate of five cents per bushel. The blaze of these coals afford so strong a light, that in winter, it is said, neither tailors nor other mechanics burn candles. Coal is furnished principally from the moun-

tains on the verge of the Monongahela, from which they are tumbled into the vessels below. During our revolutionary war one of these coal-mountains caught fire, and was only extinguished by the falling in of its sides, which suffocated the flame. Coals of various quality are found, however, in all directions within seventy miles. The vessels which go down the Ohio use coal as ballast, as it costs only the trouble of digging from the sides of the hills.

Pittsburgh forms one of the great points from which emigrants set out who intend to settle in the immense valley bounded by the Alleghany mountains to the east, the Gulf of Mexico to the south, the frozen regions to the north, and the White mountains to the west. This valley embraces almost every climate, and consequently every soil; but still for its general fertility may be denominated the paradise of the world.

Pittsburgh contained in 1804 about one thousand houses and five thousand inhabitants, many houses being built purposely for the accommodation of emigrants, who, when the Ohio is low, are frequently detained a considerable time. It is however rapidly increasing in size and consequence, and affords many beautiful views. The town is principally built on the Monongahela. This river affords a pleasant sandy margin, of about thirty feet broad: the surface of the cliff is about twenty feet above this strand, and is, when the waters are much out, covered by them. Whenever our population is sufficient to enable us to become a manufacturing people, the situation of Pittsburgh will render it important, the carriage of heavy articles operating as a premium in favour of those there produced. Its situation at the confluence of two mighty rivers, and at the source of an immense inland navigation, with a supply eternal of excellent coal, plenty of fish, and a rich surrounding country, are advantages few places can afford. The new fort has, since the cession of the adjoining country by the Indians, been converted into a store for the United States, in which they deposit the different articles destined to be distributed through western America, and is only garrisoned by a lieutenant and seven men.

House-rent and all the necessaries of life are cheap at Pittsburgh. It contains a handsome court-house, and tolerable market-house. The town is, however, dirty, consequent on the richness of the adjoining soil, the narrowness of the streets, and the profuse use of coal. A branch of the bank of Pennsylvania is established in this town. The best hickory wood sells at a dollar and a half the cord. The taverns are equal to any either in Washington or Baltimore; their charges are reasonable.

The common boats which convey passengers and goods down the Ohio are twelve feet wide, and cost, according to their length, a dollar a foot: when well covered, painted, and divided into apartments, they will sell for a dollar and a half the foot. Some are very elegant, and cost more. Of these I once saw two: one belonging to general Wilkinson; the other to colonel Burrows: both were elegant, the first particularly, being gilt, and highly ornamented. Those destined for use more than show are estimated to carry each about half a ton for every foot in length. Of these boats about one hundred, having about twelve emigrants each, were said to be waiting between Brownfield and Geneva, on the Alleghany, and about as many more on the Monongahela, till the waters should rise, to waft them to their intended settlements.

On the 28th of April, 1804, the Ohio rose four feet: it still, however, wanted twelve of the level deemed necessary to navigate the Ohio boats.

The boats which convey flour from Pittsburgh to New Orleans take from 250 to 300 barrels each, that produced on the Monongahela being considered the best. A company lately established sent 250,000 barrels for sale in the year 1804. In

the same period it is calculated 100,000 tons of manufactured articles passed through this town down the Ohio; and it is asserted the average increase is 2000 tons annually.

It may some years hence be a matter of curiosity to compare the present with the then state of the manufactories of Pittsburgh. On the Alleghany, and opposite Pittsburgh, are colonel O'Hara's glass works. In the town he has a brew-house, two tan-yards, and a yard for ship-building, in which, in 1804, was building one brig of 250 tons, and from which had lately been launched one ship of 350 tons. A tin-manufactory was established, which then employed twenty-eight persons; a nail-manufactory thirty; a cotton manufacturer had recently fixed himself, and employed but twelve; thirty workmen were engaged in ship, and about fifty in boat-building; thirty were also engaged in the rope-walks, which received their hemp from Ohio and Kentucky states.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## SEBASTIAN OF PORTUGAL.

THE young Sebastian burned with zeal to try his hand against the African infidels. A slight invitation led him to the assistance of the expelled king of Morocco, Muley Mahomet. He set sail with a considerable army on midsummer-day, 1578, in spite of the dissuasion of his friends, and the ominous appearance of a comet. The army was landed at Arcilla, and went for Allarache. On the road it met the hostile force of Muley Molucco in the plain of Alkassarquivir. Sebastian and his Portugueze suffered an entire defeat: he himself fell. Such at least was the report.

But what if he did not fall, or at least did not perish? Four pseudo-Sebastians arose one after another, just when Spain had completed the seizure of Portugal. The three first were notorious impostors, and incurred the fate they deserved: the fourth, on the contrary, conducted himself so skilfully, that it will probably for ever remain a question whether he were not the true Sebastian.

He came, in 1598, to Venice, and found credit not merely among the populace, but with persons of condition; especially as some Portugueze who had known king Sebastian voluntarily testified that this person entirely resembled him in face, size, and voice. He found such support as enabled him to live like a man of rank, and such countenance as encouraged him publicly to announce himself for the true Sebastian. The Spanish ambassador at Venice, Domingo Mendoza, consequently applied to the government that Sebastian might be arrested and formally questioned. He related in great detail, that in the unfortunate battle at Alkassar he was wounded, and left for dead, and had thus escaped captivity; that with Christoval of Tavora he had been carried in a small vessel to Algarve, where he recovered from his wounds; but that the sight of those whom he knew being painful to him after so great a disaster, he undertook a journey into Abyssinia. He crossed the Red Sea, visited Persia, and abode long in a cloister of Georgia under a religious habit. Here the desire of seeing once more his country and his subjects became strong: he embarked in the Black Sea for Sicily, where he landed, and whence he dispatched Marco Tullio of Rosenza into Portugal, determining to await intelligence at Rome. On his way thither he was robbed by his attendants, and compelled to seek Venice, where he had more hope of finding resources than at Rome, and had in fact been immediately recognized. All this was no sooner said than proved. He expressed confidence in the Venetian government, recalled to their recollection the correspondence he had conducted with them during the Turkish war,

and pleaded an efficient zeal for their interests. He challenged examination, and took a pleasure in indicating his personal peculiarities: the shortness of his left side, the scar on his right brow, such as Sebastian had incurred in his very childhood, the singular wart, or corn, on his toe.

The Venetian government thought fit to imprison their guest. The fugitive Portugueze presented petitions without end for his liberation. King Henry IV of France applied, through his ambassador Dufresne, to the doge, that some decisive explanation might be given, as the error of the Portugueze might be productive of much personal inconvenience. The Venetians, after three years delay, pronounced a sentence of banishment, and allowed him eight days to quit the territories of the republic. The Portugueze now began to deliberate whether he ought to return to his country by way of Switzerland and France, or by way of Tuscany. They chose unfortunately the latter. Sebastian, disguised as a monk, was no sooner come into the Florentine dominions, than he was seized by order of the grand duke Ferdinand I, and sent to Naples to be delivered up to the Spaniards.

On being introduced to the Spanish viceroy, don Ferdinand Buiz of Castro, count of Lemos, Sebastian with great dignity bade him be covered. The count inquired by what right he so authoritatively addressed him. By my birth-right, replied Sebastian. He then reproached the count for affecting ignorance, reminded him that the sword he then wore was a gift of Sebastian's to the envoy of Philip, and inquired for a piece of jewelry which on the same occasion had been presented to his spouse. He is said to have opened a secret spring peculiar to this jewelry. Yet the result was, that Sebastian, after examination, was declared to be an impostor; that he was led about on an ass through the streets of Naples, and finally sentenced to the gallies. He was transported to Spain, and lodged in the castle of San Lucar, whence he never emerged. His vicinity excited great ferment in Portugal. The date and manner of his death is unknown.

Two questions are to be investigated; whether the death of king Sebastian at Alkassar be so far vouched that it cannot reasonably be called in question; and in case this remains doubtful, whether the fourth Sebastian ought not to be reckoned among those impostors who have abused a famous name in order to fare sumptuously.

The death of Sebastian at Alkassar is imperfectly proved; from all the testimonies nothing further can be ascertained than that he was wounded in the head, and was seen to fall from his horse. The body which was selected as the king's was too much hacked and disfigured to be knowable; and although some of the king's attendants, especially Sebastian Resendius, recognized this body for the king's in the presence of Muley Hamet, yet to this evidence one may reply, "Nothing more natural than this. Who could have contradicted Resendius in the presence of the barbarian king; especially as, in case of Sebastian's survivance, it would be most for his interest to pass, among the Moors at least, for having been killed." Nor can it be denied that a report originated almost immediately, that not the king's body, but that of a Swiss, had been solemnly buried. The tales which, according to Ferreras and Thuanus, falsely occasioned the suspicion of the king's preservation, are without probability.

The pretended Sebastian therefore cannot on this ground be rejected decidedly. But, on a closer observation of him, are there no traces of imposture? None; and a thousand strong circumstances plead for him. He is in the hands of the *Dicci* at Venice, a severe tribunal, whose first rule was said to be *correre alla pena prima di examinar la colpa.* This tribunal confines him three whole years, is unable in all that

time to find evidence of his imposture, although the Spaniards would assuredly have been active in furnishing proofs against so inconvenient a claimant. When at length this tribunal is pressed for a decision, what does it do? In fact nothing. It finds no guilt in the man; it sets him at liberty; but orders him to quit the territory of the republic, lest it should become a nest of intrigue and conspiracy. This looks more like the treatment of unwelcome innocence than of detected guilt. Nor was it agreeable to the Venetians that the grand duke of Florence should seize the exile, and deliver him over to the Spaniards; for cardinal Ossat expressly says in his letters that they considered it as a heinous affront. When he gets to Naples, there must have been again the same deficiency of hostile evidence, else why so much deference and attention, and so cautious a removal to San Lucar: the former pretenders had been put to death without ceremony.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## VOLUNTARY DEATH.

THE different degree of power which persons of distinct habits and constitution appear to possess, not only over the feelings and faculties of the mind, but likewise over what are called the involuntary muscles, and even the nerves and the blood-vessels of the body, affords ground for a speculation, curious at least, if not important, how far so desirable a power may be *acquired;* and to what extent, by some yet undiscovered method of education, it may be elevated and improved.

Dr. Cheyne relates an instance, in one of his medical treatises, the accuracy of which is established by irrefragable evidence, in which a person, at any time when he chose, could exhibit every appearance of death; and, after having lain for a considerable period exactly as a corpse, was able, by a voluntary struggle, to restore to himself the appearance and all the various functions of intellect and animation.

He could *die*, or *expire*, says Cheyne, when he pleased, and yet, by an effort or somehow, he could come to life again. He insisted so much on our seeing the trial made, that we were at last forced to comply. We all *three* felt his pulse first; it was distinct, though small and thready; and his heart had its usual beating. He composed himself on his back, and lay in a still posture for some time; while I held his right hand, Dr. Baynard laid his hand on his heart, and Mr. Skrine held a clean looking glass to his mouth. I found his pulse sink gradually, till at last I could not feel any, by the most exact and nice touch. Dr. Baynard could not feel the least motion in his heart, nor Mr. Skrine the least soil of breath on the bright mirror he held to his mouth; then each of us, by turns, examined his arm, heart, and breath, but could not by the nicest scrutiny discover the least symptom of life in him. We reasoned a long time about this odd appearance as well as we could, and finding he still continued in that condition, we began to conclude that he had indeed carried the experiment too far; and at last were satisfied he was actually dead, and were just ready to leave him. This continued about half an hour, by nine o'clock in the morning in autumn. As we were going away, we observed some motion about the body, and upon examination found his pulse and the motion of his heart gradually returning; he began to breathe gently, and speak softly. We were all astonished to the last degree at this unexpected change, and, after some further conversation with him and with ourselves, went away fully satisfied as to all the particulars of this fact, but not able to form any rational scheme how to account for it. He afterwards called for his attorney, added a codicil to his will, &c., and calmly and composedly died about five or six o'clock that evening.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## AN ACCOUNT OF GEORGE THOMAS, A FAMOUS ADVENTURER IN INDIA.

THE history of George Thomas exemplifies, in a striking manner, the caprice of fortune. It exhibits him as rising from the lowest station to high military command, sustaining the rank of an independent chief, placed on a level with the native princes of India, the absolute lord of an extensive territory, commanding an army of his own, carrying on wars, and forming alliances with neighbouring states. We see him displaying the talents of a warrior and a statesman, and frequently employing his power beneficially by extending assistance and protection to weak princes, who had suffered from the violence of foes more mighty than themselves. We then behold the same favourite of the uncertain dame all at once deserted by her, and reduced nearly to his original condition. An unexpected turn of affairs, the union of a vast force, inauspicious incidents, the hatred and unmanly arts of an implacable enemy, occasion his fall from the height of grandeur to the situation of a private individual of very moderate means. For his fall he was indebted to a European adventurer like himself, whom fortune had destined to rise still higher than he had ascended, whom also she afterward reduced to a private condition, but whom she threw down more gently. Lord Wellesley afterward avenged on this man, du Perron, the injuries inflicted on Thomas.

George Thomas first came to India in a British ship of war in 1781-2. His situation in the fleet was humble, having served as a quarter-master, or, as some say, in the capacity of a common sailor.

Shortly after landing in the vicinity of Madras, the activity of his mind overcoming the lowliness of his situation, he determined to quit the ship, and embrace a life more suitable to his ardent disposition.

His first service was among the Polygars to the southward, where he resided a few years. But, at length, setting out over land, he spiritedly traversed the central part of the peninsula, and about the year 1787 arrived at Delhi. Here he received a commission in the service of the begum Sumroo. This lady is well known in the history of the transactions of modern times. Soon after his arrival at Delhi, the begum, with her usual judgment and discrimination of character, advanced him to a command in her army. From this period his military career in the north-west of India may be said to have commenced.

In various and successive actions against the Seikes, and others of the begum's enemies, Thomas, by his courage and perseverance, rendered her authority respectable. By these successes, he obtained a considerable influence over the mind of his mistress, and was, for some time, her chief adviser and counsellor.

But, unfortunately for the mutual interests of both parties, after a residence of six or seven years, Thomas had the mortification to find himself supplanted in the good opinion of the begum. His authority was assumed by a more successful rival.

This conduct in the begum exciting much animosity and many heart burnings between the two rival commanders, Thomas resolved to embark his fortunes on a different service. He, therefore, quitted the begum Sumroo, and, about 1792, betook himself to the frontier station of the British army, at the post of Anopshire.

Here he waited several months, in the expectation of receiving overtures for employment from some of the native powers. He was not deceived in these expectations. In the beginning of the year 1793, Mr. Thomas being at Anopshire, received letters from Appakandarow a Mahratta chief, conveying offers of

service, and promises of a comfortable provision.

Several purgunnahs, situated in the Mewatty country, south-west of Delhi, were conferred on Thomas by this chief. In his service, and that of Vavon Row, his successor, he continued to the time of his commencing as an independent prince.

At Jyjur, about the middle of the year 1798, he first formed the eccentric and arduous design of erecting an independent principality. The country of *Hurrianah*, which from the troubled state of the times had for many years acknowledged no master, but became in turn the prey of each succeeding invader, appeared to him as best adapted to his purpose.

In the district called *Hurrianah*, 90 miles north-west of Delhi, is the country of Thomas. It extends 150 English miles from north to south, and the same distance from east to west. Northward it is bounded by the possessions of Sahib Sing, chief of *Puttialah*, on the north-west by the *Batties*, west by the dominions of *Beykaneer*, and south by *Jyjore*, south-east by the pergunnah of *Dadaree*, east by the districts adjoining to Delhi, and north-east by the cities of *Rhotuck* and *Panniput*. That part of the country more immediately occupied by Thomas, is in shape nearly oval, and extends from thirty to forty miles in different directions. The northern boundary is formed by the river Cauggur, beyond which are the Sick territories; south it is bounded by the town of *Behal*, east by *Mahim*, and west by *Behadra*, containing in all 800 villages, and about equal in area to Cornwall or Lancashire, in England.

Within this tract of country, as in most parts of *Hurrianah*, water is scarce, especially during the hot season. To remedy this inconvenience, the inhabitants have constructed wells of considerable depth, not unfrequently from 120 to 150 feet.

Each district has likewise two or three tanks faced with stone, which afford a plentiful supply of water till the approach of the hot winds of the ensuing season, when they are dried up. The number of wells differ according to the industry of the respective inhabitants. At *Hissâr* for instance are 500, at Hansi 30, at Mahim 100, Tuhana has only 6, and some of the smaller towns from 2 to 5. In this country the Cauggur river is of the greatest service to the inhabitants. It is overflowed during the rainy season by the accession of the streams which issue from the mountains, and on the retiring of the waters, leaves, like the waters of the Nile, a rich and greasy earth, which yields an abundant crop of the finest wheat. Other parts of Mr. Thomas's possessions produce joar, rice, bajerah, and various sorts of pulse, chunah, and barley, but the latter depends on the rain that may fall from the month of October to Christmas. The pasturage is uncommonly luxuriant, and produces perhaps the largest supply of forage to be met with in any part of Asia. The grass in Hurrianah is also of a very superior quality, both as to wholesomeness and nourishment. Hence the cattle excel those of other parts. The climate is in general salubrious, though when the sandy and desert country lying to the westward becomes heated, it is inimical to a European constitution.

The natives of Hurrianah for many ages having been in a constant state of warfare, possess great personal bravery; they are expert in the use of arms, particularly the lance, sabre, and matchlock, but, though brave, they are cruel, treacherous, and vindictive, and when engaged in domestic quarrels, scruple not to kill their antagonist on the slightest and most trivial occasions.

For his capital, Mr. Thomas selected the town of Hansi: this place is situated 90 miles north-west of Delhi, and nearly in the centre of his newly acquired domains. The town standing upon a hill is peculiarly well adapted to a permanent residence.

No water can be procured within

fourteen miles, but the garrison has an ample supply of that necessary article from several wells within the fort. This circumstance renders difficult an attack except at the season of the periodical rains. "Here," says Mr. Thomas, "I established my capital, rebuilt the walls of the city, long since fallen to decay, and repaired the fortifications. As it had been long deserted, at first I found difficulty in procuring inhabitants, but by degrees and gentle treatment I collected between five and six thousand persons, to whom I allowed every lawful indulgence.

"I established a mint, and coined my own rupees, which I made current in my army and country; as from the commencement of my career at Jyjur, I had resolved to establish an independency, I employed workmen and artificers of all kinds, and I now judged that nothing but force of arms could maintain me in my authority, I therefore increased their numbers, cast my own artillery, commenced making muskets, matchlocks, and powder, and, in short, made the best preparations for carrying on an offensive and defensive war, till at length, having gained a capital and country bordering on the Seik territories, I wished to put myself in a capacity, when a favourable opportunity should offer, of attempting the conquest of the Punjaub, and aspired to the honour of planting the British standard on the banks of the Attock."

To carry his plans into effect, and for the support of his troops, Mr. Thomas appropriated a part of the revenue arising from the lands granted by the Mahrattas, and with much judgment and discernment, naturally inherent in liberal minds, endeavoured to conciliate the affections of his men by granting pensions to the widows and children, or nearest relations of those soldiers who fell in his service. These pensions, amounting to 40,000 rupees per annum, were regularly paid to the respective claimants, a mode which reflects the highest credit on Mr. Thomas's character, but which had long since been anticipated by the wisdom of the British government in rewarding their veteran Sepoys. The payments were made every six months, and the nearest relation of the deceased, whether officer or soldier, received the half pay of his rank. This and the expence of casting cannon, the fabrication of small arms, and the purchase of warlike stores, consumed that part of Mr. Thomas's revenues which he derived from the districts granted him by the Mahrattas.

The force brought against him by the contrivance of du Perron, and the treachery created by the intrigues of that insidious adventurer, proved fatal to the power, and extinguished for ever the splendid hopes of our hero, at a time when he was meditating the conquest of the whole of the Punjaub. Never did he appear greater than in the midst of the difficulties with which fortune and his enemies surrounded him, and to which he was rendered unequal solely by the base treachery of those on whom he depended.

Not long after his arrival on the British frontier, where he finally took refuge, Mr. Thomas inspected his affairs, and, on collecting the wreck of his fortune, acquired with so much toil and labour, he found himself possessed of a sum, not more than sufficient to procure the comforts of life in his native country. With this he determined to retire from public life to the enjoyment of domestic ease and quiet; and with this intention was proceeding to Calcutta, when death arrested his progress near the military cantonments of Berhampoor, on the 22d August, 1802. He was interred in the burying-ground of that place, and a monument is now erecting to his memory.

George Thomas was a native of Tipperary in Ireland, about forty-six years of age; tall in his person (being upwards of six feet in height) and of a proportionate strength of body; his countenance was bold and erect; but from the constant and active use of his limbs, during his

long and arduous warfare, he had contracted an elevation of the head which gave him the appearance of stiffness, though, in consequence of this elevation, his look was more martial, and indicative of the intrepidity of spirit which reigned within, and which wholly possessed his mind to the last hour of his life.

Mr. Thomas appeared formed by nature to execute the boldest designs, and though uncultivated by education, he possessed a native and inherent vigour of mind, which qualified him for the performance of great actions, and placed him on a level with distinguished officers of the present days.

That he possessed superior military talents, has we trust been evinced by the relation of the transactions in the preceding pages, and in reviewing his conduct during a long and multifarious warfare, a more competent estimate may perhaps be formed of his abilities, if we reflect on the nature and extent of one of his plans, which he detailed to the compiler of these memoirs, during his residence at Benares. When fixed in his residence at Hansi, he first conceived, and would, if unforeseen and untoward circumstances had not occurred, have executed the bold design of extending his conquest to the mouths of the Indus. This was to have been effected by a fleet of boats, constructed from timber procured in the forests near the city of Ferosepoor, on the banks of the Sutludge river; of proceeding down that river with his army, and settling the countries he might subdue on his route, a daring enterprise, and conceived in the true spirit of an ancient Roman. On the conclusion of this design it was his intention to turn his arms against the Punjaub, which he expected to reduce in the course of a couple of years, and which, considering the wealth he would then have acquired, and the amazing resources he would have possessed, these successes combined, would doubtless have contributed to establish his authority on a firm and solid basis.

His knowledge of the spirit and character of the different tribes and nations that compose the interior of the vast peninsula of India, was various, extensive, and correct; and no man perhaps ever more thoroughly studied, or more properly appreciated, the Indian character at large. In his manners he was gentle and inoffensive, and possessed a natural politeness, and evinced a disposition to please superior to most men. He was, as we have already seen, equally a loyal subject to his king, as a real and sincere well wisher to the prosperity and permanence of the British empire in the east.—He was open, generous, charitable, and humane, and his behaviour towards the families of those persons who fell in his service, evinces a benevolence of heart, and a philanthropy of spirit highly honourable to his character.

But, with these good qualities, the impartiality of history demands that we should state his errors, and endeavour to discover some shades, in a character otherwise splendid; a quickness of temper, liable to frequent agitations, and the ebullitions of hasty wrath, not unfrequently rendered his appearance ferocious, yet this only occurred in instances where the conviviality of his temper obscured his reason; and for this, on conviction, no man was ever readier to make every acknowledgment and reparation in his power.

Perfect correctness of conduct cannot be expected from a character like the one now under consideration, as a seclusion from civilized life, and long absence from the exercise of those duties, which constitute the chief enjoyment of social happiness, must necessarily have tinctured the manners of the man with some portion of the spirit of the barbarians, with whom he was so long an inmate.

Upon the whole, however, we may be justified in remarking, that, on a review of the life and actions of this very extraordinary man, it is difficult which most to admire, whether the intrepidity of spirit, by which he

was incited to the performance of actions, which by their effect raised him from the condition of a private subject to rank and distinction among princes; or the wonderful and uncommon attachment generally exhibited towards his person and interests, by natives of every description, who fought and conquered with him in his long and arduous career, and whose assistance exalted him for a time to a height of respectability and consequence that seldom falls to the lot of an individual.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## PHILADELPHIA.

"PHILADELPHIA is the most dull, monotonous, uninteresting city on the face of the globe, whose positive advantages it would puzzle a Solomon to discover. The negative catalogue is not however so scanty. It wants more churches, markets, and coffee-houses. Its churches, few as they are, want steeples, and their steeples bells. They also want audiences, and their audiences want zeal. Their choirs want singers, and their singers want voices. Their markets want space, air, and shelter; and their coffee-houses want room, dignity, and convenience. The streets want variety, being too uniformly level, wide, and straight. Of the only curved streets one is too narrow, and the other too is wide. In the one the houses are too high, and in the other are too low. Where the houses are dissimilar, they are too dissimilar; where they are alike, they are too much alike. The city wants more hotels; the few there are are dirty, noisy, dark, and inconvenient. The streets have many trees, but little shade. Their foot pavements are smooth where smoothness is least wanted, and their carriage-ways are rough where roughness is most troublesome. In a town of only eighty thousand people, many must go a mile to market and as far to church. The best and most busy streets are twice a week crowded, for half a day together, with horses and carts. The principal street is lined, all the year round, with waggons, which serve the purpose, while moving, of ships, and while standing, of stalls and inns, and the street has all the furniture of a stable yard.

"Philadelphia has two theatres; one of which is pretty much in the style of a barn, is placed in the dirty and obscene skirts of the city, and is, at least, a mile from the habitations of two-thirds of the inhabitants. It is only opened occasionally, on the arrival of a company of mountebanks, jugglers, or rope-dancers.—The other is open half the year, and about one in two hundred of the people frequent it each night of exhibition, which takes place twice or thrice a week.

"Every thing in this city is in a state of revolution. The only house which deserved the name of a genteel or fashionable residence is lately turned into a tavern. The house occupied by Washington and Adams, in the days of their sovereignty, underwent the same fate. A house designed as a palace for the government of the state, has lately become a college, and the hall of the revolutionary congress is now a depositary for stuffed birds and beasts.

"The only magnificent public buildings are characteristic of the genius of the place: they are *money-shops*, vulgarly called banks. One of them is a mass of hewn marble, disposed, most ridiculously, into the form of a Grecian Ionic temple, thus exemplifying the most preposterous incongruity between the form and the purpose. The other is not liable to this objection, but is built, in the interior, of such materials, that a random spark would speedily reduce the whole into a heap of ruins.

"The people are composed of mechanics, lawyers, merchants, physicians, and so forth. They are a dull, sober, plodding race; suspicious, sordid, and inhospitable. What they earn with labour and economy, they spend with pride and ostentation."

Such we re the sentiments lately expressed concerning us by a foreigner, who, upon inquiring into his character, I found to be a moody, sullen wretch, who was introduced by the letters he brought with him to many respectable persons, but by constantly indulging his spleen and ill humour against the country, created coldness and disgust in every one whose lot it was to entertain him.

He landed at New York, in the depth of a hot summer, just upon the eve of a yellow fever. His terrors, aggravated by the novelty of such a situation, soon drove him to Philadelphia. In crossing the causeway, his legs were stung by the musquitoes to such a degree, that the pain and inflammation confined him to a tavern at Elizabeth-town for several days, during which time the persecuting buzz of the same insects frightened away both sleep and patience, and greatly retarded his cure.

When he reached Philadelphia, most of the wealthy and idle class of the citizens had retired into the country, and his ill luck fixed him at a boarding-house in Second-street, where the heat, dust, and noise, foul airs, and venomous musquitoes had free access to his bed-chamber, and their hostilities were aided by an old bedstead abounding with bugs, a pilfering waiting boy, a drunken cook maid, a scolding landlady, a dark, steep staircase, a low cieling, and noisome water from a yard pump.

After receiving this account of matters, I confess I was only surprised at the candour and forbearance displayed in the above description. There are few persons who would not have drawn, in similar circumstances, a much more hideous caricature.

W.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## REMARKS ON MYSTERIES.

NOTHING is more agreeable to all readers than mystery. A fictitious performance cannot recommend itself more to general attention than by exhibiting and gradually unfolding some tissue of mysterious incidents. A thousand transactions daily occur in common life, which excite interest only by involving some unfathomable mystery. Without this seasoning, by which the agreeable employments of wondering and conjecturing is afforded, many circumstances which now engage attention would be soon entirely forgotten.—People will employ themselves laboriously, day after day, in searching for a clue to some labyrinth, when, the moment they catch it, they relinquish it with indifference.

The lapse of near forty years has not damped, or at least extinguished, the ardour with which many people still inquire and conjecture concerning the true author of Junius. Should this mystery be cleared up, that work will lose half its attractions.

Who has not heard of the famous mystery connected with the man in the iron mask? Voltaire and Gibbon thought this matter worthy of a formal dissertation, and yet nobody would think of this affair a second time, if the person of this incognito were once identified.

Is a man detected in the very act of murdering another? He is arrested, tried, condemned, and executed, and we hear no more of him. But is the body of a murdered person found, and can no plausible guess be formed with respect to the murderer? A whole city, nay, a whole nation shall be busily employed in inquiring, discussing, and conjecturing about the guilty person.

There is one sort of mystery, however, which lays higher and peculiar claim to our attention: I mean the questions that concern the identity of some important person. When kings and other eminent persons have disappeared, in such circumstances as to leave the world in some doubt whether they are actually dead, the mind cannot find more agreeable employment than in weaving conjectures, collecting testimonies, and weighing probabilities up-

on the subject. Impostors are sure to take advantage of this temper, and, by personating the great man in question, aspire to raise their own fortunes.

The history of most nations affords striking examples of these mysteries. In England, three hundred years were not sufficient to destroy, in vast numbers of minds, the belief that Arthur, their favourite, hero, was still alive, and that, one day, he would return to his country, and avow himself.

The uncertain fate of Edward the sixth and his brother, gave rise to one famous imposture, or, as some historians believe, to two of them.—However, the identity of Perkin Warbeck has always been a topic of no small controversy, and the whole abilities of many ingenious men have been devoted to the unravelling of that celebrated mystery.

A little library has been written to determine whether Mary of Scotland had any hand in the murder of her husband; and this continues still a favourite subject with many speculative inquirers. Many *more* centuries must elapse before the interesting obscurity that hangs about the conduct of that celebrated personage, will fail to engage the attention of literary idlers.

Even in our own times, a considerable stir was made in some parts of Holland and England, by the appearance of a person who called himself the dauphin of France.—The nature of the case, however, allowed the mystery but a short reign.

Literary mysteries have supplied food for learned curiosity and subject of learned occupation in all ages. In our own age, and our own language, the authenticity of Rowley and Ossian has been discussed by the most zealous, erudite, and laborious pens. The controversy about Rowley has been settled, and Rowley, accordingly, is heard of no more. Ossian, his antiquity, and Gaelic parentage, are still controverted points, and the scores of volumes which have been issued from the press already on this subject, will probably be augmented by another score, before the debate is at an end. If the question should ever be decided against the genuineness of Ossian, and that is the most probable decision, this poet, so much read and admired, will speedily sink into oblivion.

A very famous and perpetual mystery is the institution of freemasonry, an institution whose long duration and extensive diffusion are, themselves, as great mysteries as any which their secret conclaves are witness to. Were we to pretend to account for its continuance through so many ages, we should perhaps be obliged to ascribe it solely to the mystery on which it is built. The mystery, when known, would probably would turn out to be trivial or ridiculous, but, as long as it is known only to the initiated, it will always be a stimulus to the curiosity and ambition of those without the pale.

Mysterious fraternities seem to have abounded in all ages. In many cases, this mystery has been prompted by considerations of personal safety; but, in many cases, also, societies have been formed merely for the pleasure of having a secret, and of obtaining that importance in the eyes of others, which the possession of a secret is sure to confer.

The history of mysterious fraternities, if the very attribute does not preclude the possibility of making them the topics of history, would be an interesting and amusing task.—Such fraternities have been much more numerous than is commonly imagined. An industrious inquirer would discover hints and traces of their existence, in numerous cases where, at present, they are, generally, unsuspected. The catalogue of religious and political sects, that have hitherto existed, would be greatly enlarged, if the collector were able to add to those which think publicity a duty, those whose fundamental rule has been concealment.

W.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## HOMER AND OSSIAN COMPARED.

THE author of the Iliad has described every thing, in which error or inaccuracy might be detected, either by experience or demonstration. The structure of the human body; the effects of wounds; the symptoms of death; the actions and manners of wild beasts; the relative situations of cities and countries; and the influence of winds and tempests upon the waters of the sea, are all described with a precision, which, not only no other poet, but scarcely any technical writer upon the respective subjects of anatomy, hunting, geography, and navigation has ever attained. The hyperboles are all in the actions of his gods and heroes, in which exaggeration could not be detected: but in every object and every circumstance, which it was possible for his audience practically to know, the most scrupulous exactness in every minute particular is religiously observed. There are near twenty descriptions of the various effects of wind upon water—all different, and all without one fictitious or exaggerated circumstance: no *fluctus ad sidera tollit*; or *imo consurgit ad æthera fundo*, which even Virgil, the most modest of his imitators, has not avoided, but the common occurrences of nature, raised into sublimity by being selected with taste, and expressed with energy.

A judgment enlightened by this remark can easily trace the boundaries of poetical licence even in unpolished nations, and may venture to pronounce that certain poems, published as the productions of a remote age, are modern forgeries.

In the early stages of society, men are as acute and accurate in practical observation, as they are limited and deficient in speculative science; and in proportion as they are ready to give up their imaginations to delusion, they are jealously tenacious of the evidence of their senses. Macpherson, in the person of his blind bard, could say with applause, in the eighteenth century, "Thus have I seen in Cona, but Cona I behold no more—thus have I seen two dark hills removed from their place by the strength of the mountain stream. They turn from side to side, and their tall oaks meet one another on high. Then they fall together with all their rocks and trees." But had a blind bard, or any other bard, presumed to utter such a rhapsody of bombast in the hall of shells, amid the savage warriors, to whom Ossian is supposed to have sung, he would have needed all the influence of royal birth, attributed to that fabulous personage, to restrain the audience from throwing their shells at his head, and hooting him out of their company as an impudent liar. They must have been sufficiently acquainted with the rivulets of Cona or Glen-Coe to know that he had seen nothing of the kind; and have known enough of mountain torrents in general to know that no such effects are ever produced by them; and would, therefore, have indignantly rejected such a barefaced attempt to impose on their credulity.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## GOOD NATURE AND GOOD HUMOUR DISTINGUISHED.

THOSE persons who are most prone to laughter, and most ready to enjoy every kind of social pleasantry or ridicule, without reflecting at whose expence it is indulged, are commonly called *good natured;* while those, on the contrary, who show no such disposition, but who chill with grave looks, or check with moral observations, the mirth, which a gay circle is deriving from a ludicrous display of the follies and foibles of a person, whom they, perhaps, all reverence and esteem, are as commonly styled *morose, sour, ill natured fellows.* But, in this case, we confound two qualities, which are extremely different, *good*

*nature* and *good humour*. *Good nature* is that benevolent sensibility of mind, which disposes us to feel both the happiness and misery of others, and to endeavour to promote the one, and prevent or mitigate the other: but as this is often impossible, and as spectacles of misery are more frequent and obtrusive than those of bliss; the good natured man often finds his imagination so haunted with unpleasant images, and his memory so loaded with dismal recollections, that his whole mind becomes tinged with melancholy; which frequently shows itself in unseasonable gravity, and even austerity of countenance and deportment; and in a gloomy roughness of behaviour, which is easily mistaken for the sour morosity of the worst species of malignant temper. *Good humour*, on the contrary, is that prompt susceptibility of every kind of social or festive gratification, which a mind void of suffering or sorrow in itself, and incapable, through want of thought or sensibility, of feeling the sufferings or sorrows of others, ever enjoys. A certain degree of vanity, or light pride, is absolutely necessary to feed and support it; and, though it is never allied to dark envy or atrocious malignity, it is never, I believe, entirely free from a certain share of sordid selfishness; for, as the perpetual smile of gaiety can only flow from the heart which is perpetually at ease, it can only flow from *that* which carries the ingredients of perpetual ease always within itself; and these are affections, which never diverge far from its own centre.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## DUTY OF PERIODICAL ESSAYISTS.

*By Dr. Drake.*

AS the cultivation of letters and science is mostly confined to a few professional individuals, it should be the aim of the periodical writer to introduce and diffuse a taste for useful and ornamental learning, in the engaging form of short and popular essays, which may be perused without much effort of intellect, and without encroaching on the engagements of the higher or stated employments of the middle classes of society. There are virtues, too, and vices, which lie without the sphere of legal influence, and to which the solemn eloquence of the pulpit is too often directed in vain, but which may be successfully enforced or reprobated in the compass of a few pages of classical humour or playful satire.

To introduce and support a taste for elegant literature; to paint Virtue in her most alluring form; to inculcate attention to the decencies, proprieties, and minuter graces of domestic life, and to dissipate by well-turned ridicule and humour those fashionable follies and lighter shades of vice, which, though apparently trivial, undermine the foundations of our happiness, form the legitimate objects of a periodical paper. That these, however, may produce their full effect, no common-rate ability is demanded on the part of the author. To beauty, accuracy, and vivacity of composition, must be added strength of imagination and versatility of style. The tale, the allegory, the vision, should relieve or clothe the dryness of didactic precept; and the pages animated by the glow of sentiment, or the brilliancy of description, should be succeeded by the smile of satire, and the pleasantries of comic painting.

Something more than scholarship is requisite to succeed in this department of public instruction and amusement: the periodical writer must mingle in the world, and note with a penetrating eye the different classes and individuals of mankind, and he must select with discrimination the proper objects of censure and of praise. Even in the present age, when literature is more generally cultivated, and when refinement almost borders on fastidiousness, many petty faults and striking foibles remain to be corrected; our manners

still betray peculiarities of character; and a taste for cadence of period and harmony of style, for the luxuries of fiction and the elegancies of critical discussion, now so widely disseminated, presents an ample field for variety and grace.

Previously to the publication of the Tatler, the writers of periodical papers in England were contented to exercise their talents on the news of the day, and on theological and political controversy. In the reigns of James and Charles I, the daily vehicles of political information appear to have been borrowed from the model of the *Mercurius Gallo-Belgicus*, a Dutch newspaper. These *Mercuries*, which multiplied during the civil wars, were followed by L'Estrange's *Observator*, Lesly's *Rehearsals*, and De Foe's *Review*, a publication far superior to any thing of the kind which had hitherto appeared.

The first number of this paper was printed on the 19th of February, 1704, in quarto, and was repeated every Saturday and Tuesday until March, 1705, when, from the encouragement it received, Thursday was added to the former days of publication, and thus it continued to visit the public thrice a week until its termination in May, 1713, forming, at its decease, nine thick volumes in quarto. The chief topics were, as usual, news foreign and domestic, and politics; to these, however, were added the various concerns of trade; and to render the undertaking more palatable and popular, he, with much judgment, instituted what he termed, perhaps with no great propriety, a "*Scandal Club*," and whose amusement it was to agitate questions in divinity, morals, war, language, poetry, love, marriage, &c. Yet, borne down by the rude mass of temporary and uninteresting matter, defective in unity of design and delineation of character, it appears, notwithstanding its more varied form, to have soon sunk into oblivion; and perhaps in the present day, as a late biographer has conjectured, a complete set of De Foe's Reviews is no longer in existence.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## EULOGY OF BOXING AND COCK FIGHTING.

BOXING and cock fighting are generally thought, by persons of education and reflection, to be of all barbarities the least defensible and excusable, and yet, strange to tell, they have had their advocates among men of taste and knowledge.

The following remarks upon these games, are by a celebrated writer, Mr. Payne Knight.

How much soever the calm energies of virtue, called forth by exertions of passive fortitude, may interest the philosophical and contemplative mind, its more active and violent efforts, displayed in feats of strength, courage, and dexterity; in the tumultuous battle, or deadly combat; are always far more interesting to the vulgar. When the abbe du Bos, therefore, asserts that the Romans, by prohibiting human sacrifices, indirectly condemned their taste for the fights of gladiators, he confounds two things which are extremely different; and thence attributes to those sanguinary destroyers of mankind an inconsistency, which only existed in his own ideas.

A lover of cock fighting would think it very strange to be told that he condemned his own taste for so heroic a diversion, by expressing a dislike to see cocks killed in a poulterer's yard; and the frequenters of bull-baiting in England, or of bull-feasts in Spain, would by no means allow that a butcher's slaughter house could afford them equal or similar amusement.

To render such spectacles interesting, there must be a display of courage, vigour, and address: for it is by sympathising with the energetic passions, that the spectators are amused or delighted: and although the energies of passive fortitude

might have been displayed by the victims of superstition, as well as by those of justice or injustice; they must, nevertheless, have been very flat and insipid, compared with those which shone forth in the varied and animated contests of the amphitheatre, where the contention was equal, and life and honour the prize contended for.

Boxing matches are contests of the same kind upon a lower scale; and the frequenters of them would probably feel as much horror and disgust as any other persons, were they to see men deprived of the power of resistance, or opposed to very unequal force, beaten as the several combatants beat each other: but the display of manly intrepidity, firmness, gallantry, activity, strength, and presence of mind, which these contests call forth, is an honour to the English nation, and such as no man needs be ashamed of viewing with interest, pride, and delight: and we may safely predict, that if the magistrates, through a mistaken notion of preserving the public peace, succeed in suppressing them, there will be an end of that sense of honour and spirit of gallantry, which distinguishes the common people of that country from that of all others; and which is not only the best guardian of their morals, but perhaps the only security now left either for their civil liberty or political independence.

If men are restrained from fighting occasionally for prizes and honorary distinctions, they will soon cease to fight at all, and decide their private quarrels with daggers instead of blows; in which case, the lower order will become a base rabble of cowards and assassins, ready at any time to sacrifice the higher to the avarice and ambition of a foreign tyrant.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## ARTIFICIAL TASTE.

BY habit and mental association, a degree of skill and a power of discrimination are acquired in the exercise of the organs of sense, which do not appear to belong to their first and untutored efforts. This acquired faculty may be called artificial or improved perception; and all refinement of taste in the liberal arts arises in the first instance from this faculty.

Though the mind depend on the senses for all communications, and though their report be, in a certain degree, necessary, yet, when by experience its perceptions are improved, it requires less assistance from the organs of sense. A musician, whose hearing is become defective, will tune an instrument with more accuracy than a person with the nicest ear who has not been accustomed to discriminate sounds; and a vintner, even when his palate is vitiated, will be able to distinguish between the flavours and qualities of different wines, with more precision than an unexperienced person whose organs of taste are unimpaired. In these instances, the mind displays its superiority; and, by an observance of others, we may perceive the manner in which sensual gratification becomes amalgamated with and lost in that which is mental.

The pleasure derived from the arts is at first the simple effect of imitation, exciting novelty and surprise; by degrees, however, men look in the imitative arts for something of character and expression, which leads to the immediate study of mind, requiring a knowledge of science, and displaying peculiar skill and execution. A taste for these higher productions of the arts is thus certainly acquired, in which the vulgar do not participate, and which affords the most exquisite satisfaction.

No person unacquainted with music, ever preferred the tone of a violoncello to that of a flute: yet, when it is perceived to be so much more copious, and so much better adapted to all the scientific as well as expressive compositions in music, which require a more extensive scale of harmony, and a more refin-

ed display of chromatic variation, the understanding so far influences the ear, that we frequently meet with persons, who have learned to think even the tones of it pleasanter. On the same principle, no person unacquainted with the art of painting ever preferred the colouring of Titian to that of Denner or Vander Werf: but, nevertheless, when it is discovered how much better adapted it is to fulfil all the great purposes of the art, the eye by degrees assents to the testimony of the mind, and learns to feel it more pleasant.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

### WHY ARE WE PLEASED WITH DISGUSTING OBJECTS, WHEN PAINTED?

IN many of the objects of our mixt sensations, there must necessarily occur a mixture of pleasing and displeasing qualities; or of such as please one sense, and displease another; or please the senses, and offend the understanding or the imagination. These painting separates; and in its imitations of objects, which are pleasing to the eye but otherwise offensive, exhibits the pleasing qualities only; so that we are delighted with the copy, when we should, perhaps, turn away with disgust and abhorrence from the original.

Decayed pollard trees, rotten thatch, crumbling masses of perished brick and plaster, tattered worn out dirty garments, a fish or a flesh market, may all exhibit the most harmonious and brilliant combinations of tints to the eye; and harmonious and brilliant combinations of tints are certainly beautiful in whatsoever they are seen: but, nevertheless, these objects contain so many properties that are offensive to other senses, or to the imagination, that in nature we are not pleased with them, nor ever consider them as beautiful. Yet in the pictures of Rembrandt, Ostade, Teniers, and Fyt, the imitations of them are unquestionably beautiful and pleasing to all mankind; and as these painters are remarkable for the fidelity of their imitations, whatever visible qualities existed in the objects must appear in their copies of them; but, in these copies, the mind perceives only the visible qualities; whereas, in the originals, it perceived others less agreeable united with them.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

### SATURN'S RING.

*By Professor Robison.*

THE most singular phenomenon exhibited in the solar system, is the vast arch or ring which surrounds the planet Saturn, and turns round its axis with the most astonishing rapidity. It is above 200,000 miles in diameter, and makes a complete rotation in ten hours and thirty-two minutes. A point on its surface moves at the rate of 1000 1-2 miles in a minute, or nearly seventeen miles in one beat of the clock, which is fifty-eight times as swift as the earth's equator.

La Place has made the mechanism of this motion a subject of his examination, and has prosecuted it with great zeal and much ingenuity. He thinks that the permanent state of the ring, in its period of rotation, may be explained, on the supposition that its parts are without connexion, revolving round the planet like so many satellites, so that it may be considered as a vapour. It appears to me that this is not all probable. He says that the observed inequalities in the circle of the ring are necessary for keeping it from coalescing with the planet. Such inequalities seem incompatible with its own constitution, being inconsistent with the *equilibrium* of forces among incoherent bodies. Besides, as he supposes no cohesion in it, any inequalities in the constitution of its different parts cannot influence the general motion of the whole *in the man-*

*ner he supposes*, but merely by an inequality of gravitation. The effect of this, it is apprehended, would be to destroy the permanency of its construction, without securing, as he imagines, the steadiness of its position. But this seems to be the point which he is eager to establish; and he finds, in the numerous list of possibilities, conditions which bring things within his general equation for the *equilibrium* of revolving spheroids; but the equation is so very general, and the conditions are so many, and so implicated, that there is reason to fear that, in some circumstances, the *equilibrium* is of that kind that has no stability, but, if disturbed in the smallest degrees, is destroyed altogether, being like the *equilibrium* of a needle poised upright on its point.

It is a much more probable supposition (for we can only suppose) that the ring consists of coherent matter. It has been represented as supporting itself like an arch; but this is less admissible than La Place's opinion. The rapidity of rotation is such as would immediately scatter the arch, as water is flirted about from a mop. The ring must cohere, and even cohere with considerable force in order to counteract the centrifugal force, which considerably exceeds its weight. If this be admitted, and surely it is the most obvious and natural opinion, there will be no difficulty arising from the velocity of rotation, or their regularity of its parts. La Place might easily please his fancy by contriving a mechanism for its motion. We may suppose that it is a viscid substance like melted glass. If matter of this constitution, covering the equator of a planet, turn round its axis too swiftly, the viscid matter will be thrown off, retaining its velocity of rotation. It will therefore expand into a ring, and will remove from the planet, till the velocity of its equatoreal motion correspond with its diameter and its curvature. However small we suppose the cohesive or viscid force, it will cause this ring to stop at a dimension smaller than the orbit of a planet moving with the same velocity. These seem to be legitimate consequences of what we know of coherent matter, and they greatly resemble what we see in Saturn's ring. This constitution of the ring is also well fitted for admitting those irregularities which are indicated by the spots on the ring, and which La Place employs with so much ingenuity for keeping the ring in such a position that the planet always occupies its centre.—This is a very curious circumstance, when considered attentively, and its importance is far from being obvious. The planet and the ring are quite separate. The planet is moving in an orbit round the sun. The ring accompanies the planet in all the irregularities of its motion, and has it always in the middle. This ingenious mathematician gives strong reasons for thinking that, if the ring were perfectly circular and uniform, although it is *possible* to place Saturn exactly in its centre, yet the smallest disturbance by a satellite or passing comet would be the beginning of a derangement, which would rapidly increase, and, after a very short time, Saturn would be in contact with the inner edge of the ring, never more to separate from it. But if the ring is not uniform, but more massive on the one side of the centre than on the other, then the planet and the ring may revolve round a common centre, very near, but not coinciding with the centre of the ring. He also maintains that the oblate form of the planet is another circumstance absolutely necessary for the stability of the ring. The redundancy of the equator, and flatness of the ring, fit these two bodies for acting on each other like two magnets, so as to adjust each other's motions.

The whole of this analysis of the mechanism of Saturn's ring is of the most intricate kind, and is carried on by the author by calculus alone, so as not to be instructive to any but very learned and expert analysts.—Several points of it however might have been treated more familiarly.

But, after all, it must rest entirely on the truth of the conjectures or assumptions made for procuring the possible application of the fundamental equations.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

### THE ARBOR-UNICUS.

LESCALLIER, who is at once a great traveller and a great botanist, during his various voyages to foreign countries, has never let slip any opportunity to make interesting observations relative to the progress of natural history and agriculture. These have been regularly communicated by him either to the French Institute or to other learned societies. He at the same time has enriched the Museum of Natural History at Paris with several valuable specimens, and embraced every occasion to elucidate whatever is interesting in the arts and sciences.

Lately he has favoured the public with the history of a very singular tree, of which but one individual, which has existed from time immemorial at Tolucca, a city of Mexico, was formerly known. This account is extracted from a work in the Spanish language, printed in Mexico, and to it he has added two coloured plates, one of which represents a branch, and the other the flower and the fruit of this superb vegetable production.

The name of chiranthodendron, which he has bestowed on it, is composed of three Greek words, one of which signifies the hand, the other the flower, and the third the tree; it exactly answers to the Mexican appellation of *macpalxochiquauhit*, according to Hernandez, which signifies "the tree, the fruit of which resembles a hand." In the different stages of its progress, the flower, which is a deep red, and extremely brilliant, appears first like a shut hand, and then an open one; but the resemblance has a closer affinity to the hand of a monkey than of a man. We are informed that the inhabitants of the country where it is produced are eager to obtain it, and travel from a very great distance expressly for this purpose. As their eagerness renders the fruit very scarce, sentinels have been actually placed around the tree; some of the seeds have thus been procured, but notwithstanding all possible care, they could never hitherto be brought to germinate.

The botanists employed in the expedition to New Spain repaired, in 1787, to Tolucca, merely for the purpose of viewing, describing, and sketching this famous tree. They succeeded, at length, in obtaining a very fine specimen, which was placed in the garden of the royal palace of Mexico, and is now forty-five feet high. It is supposed that it will be possible to multiply this scarce production, so as to introduce it into the hot-houses of the north, and the pleasure gardens of the south of Europe.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

### MADAME GENLIS'S LAST WORK.

AMIDST the good qualities for which madame de Genlis is distinguished, her perseverance ought not to be forgotten. Since she first consecrated her pen to the important duties of instruction, she has never once wavered in her opinion, like many others. The same principles have ever been uppermost in her thoughts and writings, and her harmonious and correct style has not failed to ornament them. In her last work, "Alphonsina or the Tender Mother," she illustrates the following positions, that a reasonable woman ought not to be in *love* with any one, and, above all things, she is to be careful not to have any affection for her husband.

That it is, however, necessary, on the other hand, that ladies, at once so dignified and discreet, should be

passionately beloved, because by means of this they obtain an increase of their authority ; for

Il faut toujours que la femme commande.

That it is sufficient, on the part of the fair sex, to have no *repugnance*, and that, above all, every thing should be made to contribute to the *propagation of the faith*.

That this faith, the only source of happiness, requires that children should be imbued with the least possible portion of physical and moral knowledge, because they will then be more *blindly devoted*, and thus young women will prove more obedient to their mothers.

Such is the doctrine which our celebrated author enforces anew, in three volumes, the first of which is unhappily very strange, and the last very feeble : the second however possesses many real beauties. It is here intended to present a model or an example of a sensative education *(education sensative)*, an expression which is neither very clear, nor perhaps very good and perfect French : and in the opinion of madame de Genlis, this education would have been more sensitive, if the pupil possessed *but one sense less.*

Not wishing, however, to borrow any thing from the abbe Sicard or M. Hauy, who make use of all the advantages resulting from the other senses, in order to supply what nature has refused to their scholars, this illustrious instructress has thought fit artificially to deprive her Alphonsina of sight, by making her live till she had attained the age of thirteen in a cavern, during which period a tender mother was accustomed to place a bandage over her eyes, whenever she lighted a lamp for her own particular use. Accordingly, the poor child is utterly ignorant of the existence of any other living creature than herself, her mother, and a little dog. She is acquainted with her cavern alone, and even in respect to that she is entirely ignorant, save what can be obtained by groping her way through it. It being necessary to bring her mother into this unhappy situation, and to bring her thither also while big with child, this event alone employs a whole volume.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## LATE REVOLUTIONS IN INDIA.

IN 1765, there was a nabob of Bengal, who held the Nizamut by the same title which gave the British the Dewanne of that opulent kingdom. He and his family are extinguished. There was a raja of Benares, and a rich domain called Ghazipore. He is gone, and his country melted into British. There was a nabob of Oude, vizier of the empire, and the greatest of all the Mahomedan princes in that part of India. If any of his family survive, they are mere cyphers, subsisting, in disgrace and obscurity, on such pensions as the British think fit to allow them. *His* country also is annexed to theirs. There was a nabob of Ferrokabad, whose name is now hardly known, though once an eminent person among the princes of India. He and his country have shared the same fate. Beyond him, the Rohillas were a considerable independent nation. They are extirpated, and the whole of Rohilcund is English. This last possession carried the frontier and the armies of Britain to a situation considerably north of the latitude of Delhi. In that direction, the next step must have been into Tartary. Returning to the sea, the whole line of coasts from Bengal to Cape Comorin, with only one little interruption which has since been filled up, is possessed by the English. The northern Circars have been theirs for many years. The lawful nabob of the Carnatic was their old and faithful ally, as long as he could pay for it. He once had many friends in England, and even in parliament. All that we know of him

now is that his debts have been paid by the India company, and that his creditors are as numerous as ever; that, by some means or other, his family is dispossessed, and that their inheritance is absorbed into the British dominion. We have heard of a rajah of Tanjore. In former times he had the title of king. In whatever form he may still be permitted to exist, he is England's vassal, and nothing more. The rajahs of Tinnevelli, Travancore, and others of that rank, are hardly worth mentioning. Their names and titles are all that is left of them. Northward of Bombay they had the city of Surat, with a rich and considerable territory in the Guzzarat, held directly or in effect by them, under the name of a prince called the Gwicowar. This state has for its present native ruler a chieftain of avowedly weak intellects. British support therefore must be extended to all the operations of its government, holding as they do the immediate charge of the Gwicowar chieftain's own guard, and dividing with his troops the garrison of his capital. In addition to all these possessions, the effective government and a great portion of the revenues of the Decan were united to the British dominion by a subsidiary treaty, concluded in 1798 with the late Nizam, who had long been superannuated. They furnished him with an army to be stationed in perpetuity in his capital, and in return he ceded to them a tract of territory, the revenues of which were to pay the army. This force, in a year or two after, was augmented, and of course the subsidy and a new cession of territory along with it. After that, it signified very little what they kept, or what they left him. This measure carried the British arms and power into the heart of the peninsula. Tippoo Sultan was the last of all the Mahomedan princes who preserved his independence. In 1799 they attacked his capital, destroyed his government, and disposed of his kingdom by the right of conquest. The merit of this act consists in its being in some measure provoked, and still more in its being, what it professed to be, an act of open force without any mixture of fraud in it. Part of the kingdom of Mysore was annexed to the Carnatic. The remainder was placed under the pretended government of an infant raja, descended, as it is said, from princes, who had been dispossessed by Hyder Ally. The whole of the country is British. The name of the raja is a mere shadow.

Such have been the mighty revolutions which have taken place within the short period of forty years. The utter expulsion of the French from that continent, which is to be added to the changes already enumerated, has opened a door to an unlimited extension of dominion in Asia, and hereafter the British progress may be expected to be much more rapid than at any former period.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## ACCOUNT OF THE ORKNEY ISLANDS.

*Concluded from page* 216.

THE North Isles consist of sandstone, sandstone flag, schistose clay, and limestone; in some instances of basalt; and, in some, of breccia. The sandstone is in some places red, in others grey, or of a dirty white, and sometimes approaches the argillaceous, sometimes the silicious genus. Only two veins of lead have been discovered; one on the north-east, the other on the south-west side of Shapinshay. The South Isles consist nearly of the same strata; but they have little or no basalt, and nearly as little limestone. Limestone abounds near Melsetter, and in Faray; and probably exists in many other places.

In Little Waas there are tokens of hæmatites; and near the church of Hoy there is a large vein of this species of ironstone, of an excellent quality. In three places of South

Ronaldshay, attempts have been made to work lead, though with little success. Burray is thought to possess coal which has not been explored.

In the Mainland the strata are nearly similar to those in the other islands. Indications of lead are visible on the south side of the island; and at Yasnaby, on the west, veins of barytes and calcareous spar are seen traversing the sandstone, having pyrites and galena interspersed. Lydiad stone occurs in schistose clay, near the manse of Stromness, and galena in a rock intermediate between schistose and indurated clay. But this ore has no where been found in sufficient quantity. The stratified limestone of these islands is generally of a dark blue, or black colour, probably from bitumen, as it frequently contains pieces of coal, or jet. Marble and alabaster occur in Birsay. Granite is only found at Stromness and its neighbourhood; also gneise, micaceous schistus, and hornblende rock.

There are only a few trees in Hoy, and a few in the gardens of Kirkwall; but that trees formerly grew here, is evident from those found in mosses.

There are sixty-five species of fish which abound in the lakes and rivulets, or in the seas around. The quality is in general excellent; but their abundance has been more a bar than a stimulus to the industry of the people. They seldom think of turning them to profit, as an article of commerce. A few, for their own use, is all they take; and, with an apparatus costing a penny, a man can, from the point of a rock, take as many in a few hours as will maintain his family a week. The only reptiles are frogs and toads, and the leeches used in surgery. No serpents or venomous creatures are known.

There are upwards of a hundred sea and land birds, which are either perennial in these islands, or visit them at certain seasons of the year.

The brown Norwegian rat, which has been introduced by ships, has nearly extirpated the ancient, small-sized, black rat from these islands, as from other places. This rat is about 18 inches from the point of its tail to its snout, with size and strength of body in proportion. Having much more ability of doing mischief, it is much more formidable than the original black rat. Rabbits abound in all the sandy islands and downs; and considerable profit has lately been made from their skins. Hares formerly abounded; but through the destruction of woods and bushes, by exposing them to the birds of prey, they have long since vanished. The same cause has extirpated roes and red-deer; the horns of the latter being found in great numbers in mosses and morasses, where woods once grew.

The native breed of sheep seems to have been imported by the original conquerors of the islands. They are small, white-faced, and without horns. Parts of the fleece are very fine; and due attention might possibly raise this into a very valuable breed. At present they do not form an article of commerce; and it is wonderful how the race has subsisted under the savage treatment which they generally receive.

The earl of Orkney directed a muster to be made of the people about 1620, by which it appeared that ten thousand fighting men might be raised on any emergency, excluding those necessary to agriculture and the fisheries. If every tenth person might be spared as a soldier, the whole population amounted to one hundred thousand. The present population is only twenty-four thousand, and has been nearly stationary for the last sixty years. This diminution is owing chiefly to the non-residence of the proprietors; the cessation of piracy, and the consequent diminution of vessels, either for trade or for fishing; and perhaps to the gradual deterioration of the soil, which no means have been employed to improve.

The general state of agriculture may be understood from the usual mode of ploughing. This is com-

monly done by four horses yoked abreast. A driver walks backwards before, dragging them after him with a rope, and strikes them in the face to make them come forward.

The obstructions to improvement are numerous. A great part of the arable land is possessed in alternate ridges, and much of the pasture in common. There is no draining, and scarcely any fences or rotation of crops. The rents of the earldom are also paid in kind, which operates as a sort of bounty for the production for inferior grain; and the weighing and measuring machines are defective and irregular beyond all example.

The usual crops are black or grey oats, bear or bigg, and occasionally peas, of which the white succeed best. Red oats have succeeded admirably where the land was in tolerable order. Barley and rye, and even wheat, are cultivated with much success; the last has hitherto been managed in a very unskilful manner. The soil and climate, however, seem best adapted to green crops and sown grasses. In the garden, roots and pot-herbs attain great perfection. Potatoes are much cultivated, and their management might be much improved. Turnips succeed admirably; and, from the mildness of the winter, remain on the ground till late in spring, when they are as greedily devoured by the cattle as in autumn. Flax was planted in ancient times, and its cultivation has lately been revived with much success.

Limestone abounds in various places, and peat well adapted for burning it. Shell-marl is found, in the greatest abundance, in many of the swamps and lakes; and shell-sand, not inferior to lime, occurs in various places. The people, however, are prejudiced against the use of this sand, because it is often blown by the wind, and destroys land by its excess. Excellent clay marl occurs in various places. This, or swampy earth, should be substituted in place of the surface-turf, for making composts, and the most rigorous penalties imposed on those who pare and demolish the surface of the waste land. Their putrescent manures are sea-weeds and the dung of cattle.

Unfortunately, the crown lands here, as in other places, are occupied in such a way, as not only to render their own improvement impracticable, but also to prevent the improvement of other lands with which they are intermixed, or to which they are contiguous. The occupants say they have no power to alter either their mode of occupancy, or of culture.

The only manufactures of any consequence here are those of linen and kelp.

In 1799, about fifty thousand yards of linen were stamped; and, besides the yarn that was bartered, no fewer than fifty thousand spindles were sold, and as much sent to the thread manufactory.

The kelp manufacture employs more than three thousand people, for two months in summer. Three thousand tons is the average quantity manufactured, in price from nine to ten pounds, and sometimes brings nearly 30,000l. sterling in one season. This manufacture commenced about seventy years ago, and during that period, it has brought into the islands about 595,000l. sterling.

Other valuable products, besides alkaline salt, may be extracted from sea-weeds. Some gentlemen have introduced the mode of burning the plants in close kilns, which is a great improvement. It would be still better to have these kilns constructed on flat-bottomed boats, paved with bricks or flags to prevent fire, which might be moved round successively to the several creeks and bays where the weeds abound. This would convert kelp-burning into a distinct profession, to be followed all the days of the year; instead of being carried on, as at present, by people withdrawn from agriculture at the most important season.

The principal exports from these islands are beef, pork, butter, tal-

low, hides, calf-skins, rabbit-skins, salt, fish, oil, feathers, linen yarn, and coarse linen cloth, kelp, and, in years of fertility, corn, meal, and malt, in no small quantity. The imports are wood, iron, flax, coal, sugar, spirits, wines, snuff and tobacco, flour and biscuit, soap, leather, hardware, broad-cloth, and printed linens and cottons. The value of exports exceeds that of imports in various proportions, from one to above five thousand pounds *per annum*.

The fisheries are in a very languishing state, though calculated to be a great source of industry and wealth. About a hundred boats, with ten men in each, are employed in the lobster fishery. They are sold at 2d. each to vessels which convey them alive to London. A good fisher will gain ten pounds during the season. Herrings swarm here at particular periods, but few are caught. The cod and ling fishing are equally neglected; though the farmers in Waas, during their leisure, have been known to catch and cure more than forty thousand excellent cod-fish in one summer. From twenty-five to thirty smacks resort to this fishing during winter, and carry them alive to the London market.

To improve the fishery, it should be made a separate profession, and the fishers collected into villages, in convenient situations. Decked vessels should be used in place of small open boats; and a great magazine of all the materials used in fishing should be established in these islands. This would prove a most convenient station for the whale and seal fishery, and for converting the blubber into oil. Already these islands furnish a considerable number of excellent hands to the Hudson's Bay Company, to the Greenland fishery, to the merchant service, and the royal navy. Were the land and the fisheries but tolerably improved, they might, on any emergency, furnish from seven to eight thousand brave and expert seamen to the navy.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THE VILLAGE OF BROEK.

A VERY recent traveller gives us the following curious account of a village in the neighbourhood of Amsterdam. The houses, says he, amounting to about three hundred, are entirely isolated; nor are any two of them alike. Each house generally stands in the centre of a little garden, containing parterres laid out in scrolls and figures, bordered by box-shrubs, shells, coloured beads, and glass, which, being intermingled with verdant turf, produce a very curious effect: some of these beds were varied with the choicest flowers. The houses are built of wood, and in the most grotesque forms: they are painted with different colours, but the green seemed to predominate. The slates or tiles upon the roofs are glazed, and, when the sun shines, they produce a dazzling and very unpleasant effect. The church is situated in the centre of the village, and is a neat structure, with windows of painted glass, representing the cruelties that were perpetrated in this place by the Spaniards. The narrow streets are all smoothly paved with bricks of a pale colour, that are kept as clean as the floor of a drawing room: no person is even permitted to spit in the streets, and they are not of a sufficient breadth to allow the passage of any carriage.

A little rivulet called *de Havenrak* passes through the village to the Vyver, which is a lake surrounded by the best houses, and whose banks partake of the general local neatness. Delighted as we were within this extraordinary place, we were absolutely astonished at the universal silence which every where prevailed; not the smallest noise was to be heard, nor a human form to be seen; and, though in broad day light, the stillness and solitude of night reigned all around. We even entered the gardens, gathered the flowers, and took

up the shells and beads which composed their variegated beds, without molestation.

Though the population of this village is estimated at a thousand persons, this traveller asserts that, in the whole of his perambulation through it, he saw only one old woman, two men, and a boy; the inhabitants of Broek always hiding themselves on the approach of strangers. They are united by some political and religious opinions peculiar to themselves.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THE FRENCH VINTAGE DESCRIBED.

*By a recent Traveller.*

THE vintage throughout France generally commences with the new year, the first day of Vendemiaire, which takes place on the autumnal equinox, after the complementary days, which this year amounted to six: an. 12 de la republique Française, therefore, began on the 24th of September, 1803, and with it the vintage in Touraine, a country every where abounding with vineyards. The extensive plains, the gentle hills, and winding vallies, fertilized by the Loire, the Cher, and the Indre, however they may locally vary in corn and pasture, all produce wines of different quality, price, and flavour: indeed the whole aspect of this highly-favoured district is a perfect garden; or rather a continued succession of villas, farms, and cottages, situated in the centre of a little domain, which extends from two to fifteen or twenty acres; although the general proportion is perhaps from five to ten. These are diversified, according to the nature of the soil and aspect, into patches of corn, vineyards, gardens, and orchards; but the vine every where predominates: here no "desert idle" is to be seen, nor indeed a single acre of heath or useless plain; but for miles together you walk from vineyard to vineyard, amidst a profusion of nature's choicest gifts. You may eat as much fruit as you please without interruption. It is even thought a good omen, by the owners of the vineyards, when a stranger enters them, and refreshes himself with the fruit. But if the grapes should cloy, every tree you see is an apple, pear, peach, plumb, or almond: these, with walnuts and filberts, are the autumnal regale, after the summer months have presented a succession of strawberries, cherries, apricots, and smaller fruits. In India, during the season, I have seen a profusion of mangoes, and known them sold in Guzerat at a rupee for one hundred and forty pounds weight; and in Italy the luxuriant vines display their purple clusters hanging in rich festoons from tree to tree, in a more picturesque manner than is seen in the dwarfy vineyards of Touraine; but never did I behold such abundance and variety as on the banks of the Loire, where we must exclaim,

> Thy bounty shines in autumn unconfin'd,
> And spreads a common feast for all that live!

Such is the delightful picture of a country now heightened by the joy of the vintage; a season of pleasure throughout all the south of Europe, but carried to the greatest height in France, from the peculiar propensity of its inhabitants to the enjoyment of music, dancing, and festivity.

The vineyards in France are so extensive as to produce annually about 483,840,000 gallons of wine, of various quality and price. The wines most esteemed for the table are from Champagne, Bourgogne, and Bourdeaux. Provence and the southern provinces produce Muscat, Hermitage, Frontignac, Lunel, and many other rich wines. From the worst, in various departments, they make brandy and vinegar. A few vineyards in the vicinity of Tours sometimes yield five and twenty casks, of

sixty gallons each, per acre: but the average in a good vintage is from ten to twelve. The frost during the two last springs has so injured the vines, that, this autumn, an acre seldom produces more than three or four of these casks. The vallies and low lands furnish the most grapes, but the wine is of an inferior quality; while the vines on the stony hills, though less abundant, produce a liquor of superior strength and flavour: the best vineyards at Vouvray are valued at a hundred pounds an acre; those in the lower situations only at forty, fifty, or sixty; but there are some vineyards near Bourdeaux estimated at five hundred pounds sterling per acre, from the very superior quality and high price of the wine. The white grapes are all pressed immediately on being gathered, and the juice poured into casks to ferment and refine. The black grapes for the red wine are generally kept a week or ten days in large tubs, to heat and ferment, before the juice is expressed; which in itself is white, but by continuing so long in a state of fermentation with the dark skins, acquires its rich colour; and if not red enough, the crimson juice of the Tent grape is added to heighten it. Some of the poor white wines are transformed into red by a mixture of the Tent grapes, which, in small patches, are planted in most vineyards for this purpose; and their crimson leaves and black clusters, intermingled with the verdant foliage of the other vines, produce a pleasing variety. After the white wines are expressed from the grapes, the remains are given to the vine-dresser; who adds a certain proportion of water, lets them stand for some time, and then extracts a small wine for his family.

The annual produce of the wines and brandies in France is immense. The best oil is produced in Languedoc, the best honey in Narbonne; and while Touraine is so abundant in its excellent fruits, there is no scarcity of them in any part of the republic, according to the variation of soil and climate, in so great an extent of country. The southern departments of France are indebted to François Francat for their silks: in 1564 he planted the first mulberry trees for the food of the silk worms, which have since increased in an almost incredible manner in those provinces.

The weather was too mild, and the country too replete with novelty, to allow us to remain in the house. We were more particularly charmed with the very delightful prospect from the summit of the hills near the river, which in this parish and all the adjacent banks are excavated into cellars, wine-vaults, cottages and even gentlemen's houses, with the different offices hewn in the rocks, and presenting a very singular spectacle. I took a few sketches in this picturesque district; and particularly of a villa, consisting of three stories, each containing a suite of four or five large rooms, with recesses, chimney-pieces, and other ornaments, cut in the rock; the front being neatly fitted with doors and glass windows; the ascent to each floor is by a flight of rocky steps without leading to a terrace in front of the apartment; the stairs and general face of this singular habitation were softened by vines, trained over the windows, in flaunting festoons of purple grapes, enriched by the autumnal leaves of crimson, green, and gold, in endless variety. The wine-vaults and caverns beneath this house are of great extent; and its rocky surface is covered with vineyards, and orchards of apples, pears, peaches, almonds, walnuts, and mulberries, which actually form the roof of this romantic villa, and the surrounding cottages.

In another part, a huge fragment of rock, detached by a late concussion from an adjacent cliff, descended perpendicularly upon a horizontal part of the hill below, which was occupied by the gardens and vineyards of two peasants: it covered part of the property of each, nor could it be easily decided to whom this unexpected stranger belonged;

but the honest rustics, instead of troubling the gentlemen of the long robe with their dispute, wisely resolved to end it, by each party excavating the half of the rock on his own grounds, and converting the whole into two useful cottages, with comfortable rooms and cellars for their little stock of wine: and there they now reside with their families.

The revolution, as may be naturally imagined, has caused a very great change in landed property; the large estates of the nobility and gentry which have not fallen into the hands of generals and bankers, are divided into small lots, from the fourth part of an acre upwards; and many a humble villager, living in these rocky cells, looks down upon his little domain below, comprising vineyard, orchard, garden, and cornfield, within the compass of half an acre; and a continuation of these small estates for many miles together, on the banks of the Loire, gives a singular effect to the landscape.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## STATE OF PROTESTANTISM IN FRANCE.

THE ministers of the protestant congregations in France receive salaries from the government: those of the clergy, who reside in small towns, have an income of about one hundred pounds per annum, while the city pastors receive about double that sum. I am told that there is a great want of protestant ministers, and that, on this account, there are forty-three churches unattended. A seminary for the education of young clergymen is consequently about to be established, by subscription, for the protestants in France in general; and it is proposed that it shall be maintained by an annual charity-sermon in each congregation, as well as by voluntary contributions amongst the members, and it is expected that from such sources may be derived an ample fund for the permanent support of so excellent an institution. An increase of the protestant faith may, therefore, be rationally expected throughout the whole empire of France.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## EFFECTS OF THE TATLER, SPECTATOR, &c.

WHAT effect had the Tatlers and Spectators on morals and taste? In answer, we might dwell on the classical models of composition, and on the sources of bad writing, which they pointed out in a popular and insinuating manner; on the familiar and pleasing spirit which they imparted to criticism; on the specimens of acute analysis and elegant disquisition which they first presented to the world; and, especially, on the firmer tone and finer polish which they communicated to public and private virtue.

The result, indeed, of the publication of the Tatler, Spectator, and Guardian, has been of the first national importance. The diffusion of private virtue and wisdom must necessarily tend to purify and enlighten the general mass; and experience in every age has proved, that the strength, the weight, and prosperity of a nation, are better founded on knowledge, morality, and sound literature, than on the unstable effects of conquest or commerce. Rational liberty, indeed, can only be supported by integrity and ability; and it is of little consequence to the man who feels for the honour of his species, and who knows properly to value the character of a freeman, that his country has stretched her arms over half the globe, if, at the same time, she be immersed in vice, in luxury, and sensuality, and subjected to the debasing caprices and controul of tyranny.

It is but just, therefore, to infer, that the periodical writings of Addison and of Steele have contributed more essentially to the national good, to the political influence and even stability of the British empire, than all the efforts of her warriors, however great or glorious. By expanding the intellect, and improving the morals of the people, by promoting liberal education and free inquiry, they have enabled the public to understand, and to appreciate duly, the principles of genuine liberty; and consequently to value highly, and to defend strenuously, the constitution under which they live.—They have, by directing and invigorating the energies of society, given a manly tone to the national character; an effect which can never be elicited beneath the clouds of ignorance and immorality, and which depends not upon the abilities of a few solitary statesmen, or the fleeting consequences of military prowess, but upon the majority of the people thinking and acting justly for themselves, from that knowledge of political good, and that rational love of their country, from those pure principles and virtuous motives, which could only have been disseminated through the medium of writers, who, like the authors of the Spectator, have permanently and extensively exerted their moral and intellectual influence over the general mind.

In short, if we compare the state of society, private and public, as it existed previous and subsequent to the appearance of Addison and Steele, we shall not for a moment hesitate to assert, that not only Great Britain is indebted to these illustrious writers, for a most salutary revolution in the realms of literature and taste, for a mode of composition which in a mere literary view has been of great and progressive utility; but that a very large portion of the moral and political good which she now enjoys is to be ascribed to their exertions—to efforts which entitle them to the glorious appellations of genuine patriots and universal benefactors.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THE MERITS OF SIR RICHARD STEELE.

*By Dr. Drake.*

THE style of sir Richard Steele is more animated than correct, more easy than harmonious, and more familiar than elegantly simple. It improved, however, as he proceeded in his literary career, and would probably have attained to purity and excellence, had not the greater part of his life been passed in hurry and dissipation. Glaring instances occur in his writings of aukward involution, disregard of verbal selection, and extreme carelessness of composition. Many examples might also be given of passages distinguished by energy, perspicuity, and modulation.

Steele's great misfortune has ever been the comparison so perpetually drawn with regard to style between himself and Addison. The proximity of their productions has naturally led to the consideration of their respective merits in point of composition; and though it must be allowed, that from the best manner of Addison Steele stands widely apart, yet are their several papers which, having been written by sir Richard with more than usual care, and with evident marks of emulation, appear to have imbibed a portion of Addisonian grace. It is, therefore, by no means an easy task, as has been affectedly pretended, to distinguish accurately, and without hesitation, their respective papers, merely from the contrast of style. Addison is not always equal to himself in diction or construction; he is now and then feeble and remiss, and were the initials of designation withdrawn, those most familiar with the differences of style, with the shades of idiom and expression, might sometimes be foiled in the attempt.

With respect to the *taste* and *critical abilities* of Steele, the understanding and sensibility requisite to constitute a pure and correct taste

were by no means wanting in him, but the cultivation of excellent models was in a great measure precluded by the habits of a military and bustling life; it was a much easier task for sir Richard, hurried as he usually was by politics or pleasure, to sketch with a rapid though masterly hand the striking portraits and peculiar manners that he had actually witnessed, than to enter upon discussions which imply much previous study and research, and that delicacy and discrimination of taste which can only be the effect of voluntary and habitual cultivation. At the same time, it will not be denied that he could accurately appreciate the beauties and defects of painting and poetry, and that he was from principle an admirer of simplicity, both in sentiment and design.

In the effusions of *invention*, *imagery*, and *pathos*, he seems to have rarely indulged. Yet the language of genuine tenderness occurs not unfrequently in his dramatic, and sometimes in his periodical writings. Numbers 82 and 117 of the Tatler might be here quoted as examples.

It is, however, in the departments of *humour* and *delineation of character* that Steele eminently excels. The multiplicity and graphic discrimination of his portraits are truly astonishing, and could result only from a very varied and frequent intercourse with mankind. His characters, too, are uniformly sustained, and contribute to dramatize and enliven the series of papers in which they are exhibited. The foibles, the vanities, the virtues, and the vices of the female sex, have furnished sir Richard with an inexhaustible mine of observation and description. He has studied the female character in all its mutations, as influenced by passion, fashion, or caprice; and there is scarcely a deviation from propriety or decorum as they existed in his days, but what has been noticed in some parts of his works.

Whatever were the errors and defects of his private character, in *preceptive ethics and morals* Steele was luminous, pointed, and correct. While he attacked with unsparing severity the great and predominant vices of his day, he by no means omitted to inculcate a due attention to those minor duties which are so intimately connected with domestic comfort and tranquillity. *Few men have deserved better of society, and no one, every circumstance considered, can with greater propriety be termed a benefactor to mankind.*— But let us never forget that precepts lose half their value if not confirmed by example; and that he who, endowed with an exquisite sense of right and wrong, and invested with the responsible and important character of a public monitor, can yet materially deviate from his own maxims, is chargeable with double censure, and faithless to the best interests of his fellow-men.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## TALLEYRAND ON FRENCH COLONIES, AND THE COMMERCE OF AMERICA WITH ENGLAND.

A TREATISE on the benefit of colonial possessions to France, and on the commerce between the United States and Great Britain, by Talleyrand, the present French minister, must be a considerable curiosity at any time, but especially at present. Two essays on these subjects appeared in the Transactions of the French Institute during the last year, of which he was the author.

Instead of giving an account directly of these performances, the American reader will probably be more gratified by seeing how the speculations of a French statesman are treated by an English politician. We shall therefore give some account of these performances, chiefly in the words of a celebrated British critic, whose publications on colonial subjects prove him to be a master of his trade*.

* Mr. Brougham.

On his return from America, whither he had emigrated during the first stage of the French revolution, Talleyrand seems to have been strongly impressed with the situation in which he found his countrymen, after the violence of the jacobin times had subsided. Their minds were still in an unsettled and turbulent state; and there seemed great reason to dread both the commotions of those restless spirits whom the times had engendered, and the effects of that apathy which, in the great mass of the people, generally succeeds to extreme irritation. The latter topic, however, is but slightly touched, and, without considering the fatal consequences of the co-operation of these two evils, or reflecting on the impossibility of preventing a few factious men from placing their leader on a throne which the general indifference might prepare, and the universal dread of new revolutions might fortify, Talleyrand (at the date of his work, only a speculative inquirer) directs his regards entirely to the means of providing a safe retreat for those unquiet spirits whom the revolution had left behind it. The state of the country in which he had lately resided, struck him as somewhat analogous to that of his own. He reflected on the singular ease with which all the violence of a revolutionary civil war had there subsided; and was naturally led to conclude, that industry is the grand pacificator, both of individuals and of nations; the best conservator both of domestic tranquillity and social peace. The impossibility of adopting direct measures for promoting new exertions of labour among the people at home, was too obvious to require any exposition; and the observations which he had made upon the fabric of society in the infant settlements of the American continent suggested, as the best means of accomplishing the great end in view, a recurrence to the colonial system, then almost overthrown by the crimes and follies of the revolutionary government.

The papers before us are evidently dictated by this train of reflection; but they have assumed a more general form, and contain a variety of discussions on the principles of colonization. Independent of the epigrammatic force and eloquence of their style, and their substantial merits as sound and ingenious speculations on a subject of equal difficulty and importance, they cannot fail to interest us in their practical applications. They were the result of actual observation in countries where the author had access to the best information, or was actually engaged in affairs. They were drawn up with a view to influence the conduct of France, under a government in which he now bears an active part. Subsequent events prove, that they were not without effect in shaping the measures of that ambitious power.

These tracts, however, appear in a form purely speculative; their reasonings are general and philosophical; formed indeed on facts, but guided by large, scientific views; by an appeal to principles at every step; and by the kind of argument that inferior statesmen deride as theoretical, while their adversaries are conquering the world by the combinations to which it leads.

The views of political economy by which our author seems to have been guided are liberal and enlightened. He knows thoroughly the best doctrines of the science, and is fully impressed with their truth. It will be difficult indeed to believe that the writer of some of the passages is a leading personage in the present fiscal administration of France. And, however much the recollection may lead us to lament so striking an instance of talents and knowledge enslaved by sordid principles, it is comfortable to think, that there are, among the rulers of that country, some whose lights are superior to their conduct, and that the justness of their original views may one day triumph over the gross ignorance and petty ambition of their more powerful coadjutors.

The first is a general essay on colonies, and contains a deduction of the advantages which must accrue to France, from a careful attention to the colonial system; and points out the principles that ought to guide her in the formation of new settlements. The second, on the relations between England and America, is an attempt to explain several facts which the author remarked during his travels over the greater part of North America; and truly, if the former of these papers makes us wish that every statesman, and especially the present rulers of France, were actuated by such liberal views as the author inculcates, it is impossible to read the latter, without lamenting that no traveller has ever appeared so capable as M. Talleyrand, of instructing his country by the scientific observation of foreign nations; and that he himself has not devoted his life to a pursuit pointed out alike by his genius and his acquirements. We express our admiration of this man's writings without any fear of misconstruction. It would be as foolish (were it as possible) to shut one's eyes to the lustre of talents, as to despise an enemy who is strong by their aid. Great as the resources of France are, if they were not wielded by such men as Talleyrand, she would soon cease to be the object of that watchful anxiety, which, in the actual posture of affairs, is the wisest part of wisdom.

Two great objects, according to him, are to be gained by the planting of new colonies, in the present state of France. A vast body of people has been either thrown idle by the revolution, or so corrupted by habits of intrigue and excesses of violence, as to be now incapable of regular industry. To open an egress for these troublesome spirits, and at the same time to derive profit from the qualities which render them useless and dangerous at home, is the double advantage of planting new settlements. The example of America, by a striking analogy, points out the former benefit; the latter is sufficiently clear of itself. In the United States, Talleyrand was surprised to observe, that a long and violent civil war had left scarcely any trace of its existence in the character or intercourse of the various factions which divided the people. No hatred or animosity was perceivable among individuals; no turbulence or agitation of character had been permanently engrafted on the sober, solid habits of the colonists. None of these symptoms, in short, were observable, which, for ages after a violent and general conflict, always endanger the internal security of nations whose structure has assumed a regular form and consistency. The peculiar situation of the American people furnishes an easy explanation of this fact, though the change no doubt excited all those revolutionary dispositions which in other countries have prolonged the reign of anarchy, and formed abundance of characters fitted for profiting by such an alteration of popular habits; yet the vast extent of the country afforded a constant vent for the most restless activity in projects useful to the community, and tempting to the individual; drew off to a distance from the theatre of dissensions, those whose violence had not been calmed by victory, and secured an agreeable retreat to the numerous remains of the royalist party.

Now, as France, with much more of that turbulent spirit, has not at home the same opportunities of quenching it, he infers that it should be drawn off by colonial establishments, the only expedient which can enable a well peopled and cultivated country to unite the advantages peculiar to new settlements with those possessed by full-grown communities. He rapidly sketches the reasons that have induced the various emigrations recorded in history, and finds that they all owed their origin to far less pure motives than those which at present concur in recommending the scheme to France. The violence in which many of those plans originated, and

the total failure of every one that did not soon assume a milder and juster aspect, he holds up as a lesson well worthy of attention All colonial measures should begin with the fair offer of a settlement from government; and he states it as a striking proof, how essential freedom of choice is to the success of such plans, that those ancient republics which were constrained to send out colonies, by the narrowness of their territory, proposed the emigration as an allurement, and did not enforce, by positive law, even what was necessary for the existence of the state. Let us imitate the policy to which the most prosperous of those establishments owed their origin, and avoid the errors which modern nations have committed in following the example of the ancients. From sage measures of this sort, he expects every advantage will result to France. She has only to propose a colony, and the offer will be joyfully received. In describing the probability of this favourable reception, he enumerates rapidly all the motives which concur to recommend such an emigration to so many classes of the French.

But if the finding employment for the idle and restless is a great advantage to the mother country, he conceives the acquisition of rich and flourishing colonies to be no less important. The natural tendency of colonial settlements to throw off their dependence is great and manifest. The loss of America to England he deduces from causes neither accidental nor peculiar, and he views the attempts to restore order in the French West Indies as neither likely to succeed, nor, if attended with temporary success, as sufficient to ward off long the blow which circumstances beyond the reach of edicts and armies have prepared in the western wing of the French empire. While, therefore, he recommends a due attention to the restoration of St. Domingo and Guadaloupe, he enforces the necessity of being prepared for the more likely event, the total destruction of the French colonial power in the new world. Let France look about her, and see if there are no other countries where new settlements may conveniently be undertaken, and let those colonial establishments be formed upon principles which shall prevent the disasters that have befallen the West Indies. To show what are the right kinds of colonies, the settlements most safe and secure in themselves, and most likely to ensure a continuance of commercial intercourse, even after they may have become independent of the mother country, the memoir upon the United States was composed. He decides in favour of agricultural settlements, where the natives of the soil are able to cultivate it; and warns mankind against all such schemes as those to which the negro system owes its origin. The territory where these plantations may be settled is plainly described. After a few words about the islands along the coast of Africa, M. Talleyrand seems to fix upon Egypt as the proper spot. Choiseul, it is well known, foresaw the probable separation of all the American colonies, without exactly predicting the manner in which the islands were to be lost; but he was so impressed with the likelihood of this event, that he entered into measures for the acquisition of Egypt, as a settlement which might serve to France instead of all her West India territory. Talleyrand asserts, that sooner or later the emancipation of the negroes must overthrow the cultivation of the sugar colonies; and adds, "il est politique d'aller au-devant de ces grands changemens, et la première idée qui s'offre à l'esprit, celle qui amene plus de suppositions favorables, paraît être d'essayer cette culture aux lieux mêmes où nait le cultivateur."

The Egyptian expedition was undertaken a few months after this memoir had been read to an assembly to which the captain of the enterprise belonged; and the author of these opinions was engaged in

the government which planned the conquest; little doubt will then remain that the ultimate object of the capture of Egypt was the settlement of a colony which might serve as a refuge for the agriculture of the West Indies. It is difficult to say whether France had a view of proceeding against India from that quarter. Enough was surely gained by that memorable expedition, if it had but secured to France the finest colony in the world; raised her to the height of commercial prosperity, from an almost total annihilation of her trade; enabled her to sacrifice all her expensive and fickle dependencies in America, and gave her the certainty of ruining in a few crops all the colonial prosperity of her rival.

The object of the memoir upon the North American commerce is to point out the system best calculated to secure a beneficial intercourse between the mother country and the colonies, after all political dependence is at an end. Viewing a separation as the natural consummation of all such plans, he is anxious to explain how the relations of trade may be made to survive this event; and he examines, at great length, the circumstances which have maintained the connection between England and the United States, long after the cessation of their political ties. Why, since the American war, the trade between England and the United States has more than doubled, is explained in a manner perfectly satisfactory. The American colonies were entirely English. They were knit to the mother country, not by laws and governments, but by identity of origin and language, similiarity of character, habits, and political institutions. The English manufactures were necessary to countries utterly destitute of all but agricultural industry; the English merchant sold cheaper and on longer credit than any other in the world. Not only the best goods for the money were to be had from him, but goods of such excellent quality were not to be had for money in any other quarter. Not only prompt payment was dispensed with by the English trader, when all other dealers insisted on it, but the former regularly allowed his American customers to retain the use of his capital until it had yielded the gross profits, and then was satisfied with a smaller portion of the gain for his net allowance than other lenders could afford to take. All these advantages, the consequences of established skill and long experience, with a great stock, and old habits of mutual dealings, were sufficient to preserve the mercantile connections between the mother country and her late colonies, in full force, even if the powerful ties of language, manners, and blood, had not united their influence in the same direction. Compared with these bonds of attachment, what were the obligations which the colonies owed to France for assisting them in throwing off the yoke of Great Britain? The Americans, indeed, never believed that France was their real friend; they only gave her credit for being the enemy of England. But, although they had acknowledged the full extent of their debt, and felt the utmost gratitude of which their nature admitted, would such feelings have followed them into their counting-houses and warerooms? With every eye streaming out in love for their deliverers, would they have altered one inch the course of a single penny, destined, like all the pence of all the traders and all the consumers in the world, to follow, not the objects of their attachment, but the cheapest goods, and the easiest creditors? There is no wonder, then, that the trade between England and America should have continued in its wonted channel, in spite of their political separation, and of the political services of France. That channel is never open to any public influence, and feels only the force of one motive, individual interest.

He blames the old government of France, for having prepared, by its

impolitic conduct, the renewal of the commercial relations between England and the United States.— France, according to him, should have endeavoured to multiply and extend the connexions which, during the war, she had established with the people of America. Instead of this, she began to fear the introduction of those principles at home which she had fomented abroad, and discouraged all further intercourse. Now, although this discouragement of intercourse was certainly a ridiculous as well as an impolitic measure, it would be difficult to show what active means could have been used to prevent the renewal of the trade with England, or even to increase, in any sensible degree, the French commerce with America.— In the face of all the circumstances already stated, the force of which must have been omnipotent in favour of the English market, even if France had spent her whole revenue in senselessly pushing her American trade by encouragements, how can it be supposed that the new relations between America and England could be in the least degree affected by any measures which the French government might pursue? Unless the *ancienne regime* possessed the power of making the merchants richer, the manufacturers more skilful, and the people more English than the English themselves, a feat which *lettres de cachet* have never been known to perform, it cannot be blamed for not having drawn away the Americans from the markets of Great Britain.

In mentioning the long credits allowed by English traders to their American correspondents, he remarks, that they no doubt are obliged to make up for permitting their capital to lie out, by charging so much more profit on the transaction. Yet if the English capitalist reimbursed himself by an advance of profit for the long credit which he gave his customer, this surely cannot be called an accommodation.— The long credit is exactly a diminution of profit; it is one of the ways in which a great competition of capitals, in a well stocked country, tends to bring down the gains of each trader. France or Spain could give as great credit as Holland or England, were they to charge higher in proportion as the term of payment was delayed, were they to charge interest for the loan. It is because, without this additional charge, England can afford to sell at long credits, and to buy at ready money, that she pushes her trade where France cannot reach. So far, then, from the English merchants repaying themselves the long credit for which they give their American customers, this credit unrecompensed is the cause of their capital finding employment in the American states, and the consequence of that capital being very extensive. Talleyrand seems to think it voluntary on the part of the creditor; an accommodation which he allows his debtor for a certain consideration. On the contrary, it is a matter of necessity, and is forced upon him by the competition of other capitalists, while it is rendered practicable by the great extent of his own stock.

The author falls into an error of a much more general and fundamental nature, in stating the progress of the American commerce with England. Instead of simply asserting that the mercantile intercourse between the two countries, interrupted by the war, was revived after the peace, and continued as close after the independence of the United States, as it had been during the colonial government, he maintains that this intercourse was enlarged by the separation, and that Great Britain was therefore a gainer by that event.— He only takes care to warn France not to reckon upon a similar gain when she gives up her colonial dominions; observing, with great justice, that the cases of the continental and insular settlements are by no means parallel.

The fact, however, by no means warrants such an inference. The consumption of English goods in America had increased when Tal-

leyrand wrote, to three millions sterling, from less than one half the sum, its amount after the peace of Versailles. But where is the proof that the same augmentation would not have taken place though the colonial system had been preserved? It surely is not in consequence of the change, that the population of the states goes on doubling every twenty-five years; for, before the rupture, the increase of numbers proceeded at a rate somewhat more rapid, from the mere circumstance of the total amount being considerably less. Nor can the substitution of a primary for a subordinate form of government have promoted the clearing of the forests, when, before the revolution, ground was constantly prepared for the tens of thousands which each year added to the mass of the inhabitants. And if the freedom of navigation be suspected of having augmented the American wealth, it must be shown, in the first place, that all our author's own reasonings on the closeness of the voluntary connexion between England and America are false; and that what he justly terms the *voluntary monopoly*, has no existence. In truth, this monopoly, which has survived the navigation laws, is the clearest possible proof, that the only effect of those laws was to enforce what must have taken place naturally. If a trifling commerce be now carried on by American traders with foreign nations; and if, in consequence of its profits, the Americans are enabled to buy a little more from England than they otherwise could have done, the difference is probably more than counterbalanced by two circumstances, both effects of the revolution—the exclusion of the Americans from a free trade with one of their best markets, the British West Indies, and their receiving the articles of foreign growth at first hand, instead of getting them, as formerly, through the medium of the mother country. The former of these circumstances has injured both the growth of the United States, and of the colonies which remain dependant; the latter has been favourable to the United States, but has been attended, of course, with a slight direct detriment to Great Britain; and this must be set off against the indirect advantages which she reaps from the benefit which the same circumstance confers on the North Americans.

The effect of both these circumstances upon Great Britain, taken together, must obviously turn the balance of the profit and loss arising from the free trade of the Americans somewhat against her. She indeed retains the power of admitting them to a full share of the West India commerce; but the question is, whether, in fact, the increase of demand for British goods has been owing in any degree to the independence of North America; and, indeed, the possible advantages which England may derive from a change of her navigation laws, in favour of the United States, can no more enter into a list of the good effects produced by the revolution, than the advantages she might have derived from a change of the same laws in favour of the North American colonies can enter into a list of the good effects which would have accrued from a continuance of their dependence.—Talleyrand's opinion, therefore, of the superior closeness of mercantile connexion between Britain and America, in consequence of their political separation, is entirely groundless. That the natural circumstances of relationship, which arose out of the original connexion, maintained unbroken the intercourse between the two countries, and permitted their commerce to go on increasing as rapidly as it would have done, had the ancient ties of colonial subordination subsisted, is the utmost extent of the conclusions which the facts and arguments warrant, even as stated by Talleyrand himself. No attempt is made to demonstrate, that the change has augmented those relations of commerce; and though it were proved that such had been the effects of the revolution, still it would remain to show that Great

Britain had been a gainer by the loss of her American dominions; in other words, that profit on stock is all a great nation has to think of, in the management of its affairs.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THE REFLECTOR.

### NO. XII.

TO a mind of sensibility, there are few recollections so mortifying as that of having lived only for selfish purposes, of having passed through a large portion of life without ever being of service to mankind; with the prospect of descending to the grave unnoticed, and being soon forgotten, as something which has never existed but in the imagination of the fanciful dreamer, or ardent enthusiast. To a person thus constituted, who wishes he had been able to perform some action which would not have been swept away amidst "the wrecks of time," but would have borne down his memory to distant ages, and enrolled his name on the illtrious list of human benefactors, how dreary is the retrospect of life! He seems to have lived without having fulfilled the end of his existence; he feels himself alone in the world, for he has no claim on the services, the attentions, or the sympathies of his fellow; he thinks these things cannot be given, except for some equivalent consideration, and knowing he has never given it, thinks he cannot reasonably expect any return.

At the first glance of the subject, it appears as though there were many persons thus situated, but a more attentive consideration will convince any one, that the number is fewer than we have imagined; that few have lived, who were not, and few live who are not actually serviceable to mankind in a greater or lesser degree: it is true all do not contribute in an equal proportion; some have not the inclination, others have not the power, and it is equally unreasonable to expect to contribute largely with scanty means, as it is to expect a large crop (abstractedly) from a small field; and viewing the subject in a religious light, we may venture to reverse the scriptural phrase, and say, "to whom little has been given, of him little will be required," and if death puts an end to our exertions, we must remember that He who shortens the span of existence is satisfied with the fruit it produces.

But let those who are inclined to dwell on human depravity not decide too hastily; let them look around with an eye of observation, and they will perceive on the desert many fertile spots, where the virtuous have flourished even in the unfriendly shade of obscurity, without the hope of reward, or the prospect of celebrity. It is true, many have not been eminently useful to society, nor would any have been so had great numbers possessed the virtues, and performed the services of the eminent; for men are not apt to consider that a virtue which is common to many, for the same reason that they esteem those things *less* which they do possess, than those they have possessed and possess no longer. But though many have not been eminently useful, yet a much greater number have been, and are so, than we are at first view willing to allow.

I was induced to make these observations by the perusal of the epistle of my correspondent Maltronio*, who laments the uselessness of his own life, and sees no merit in any of the actions of it; he accuses himself for having lost so many days, and infers the degree of his own culpability, by comparing his situation with that of the emperor Vespasian, whose conduct he seems to have endeavoured to imitate, without bearing in mind that the opportunities and resources of this prince were immeasurably greater than his own; without reflecting that even Vespasian unjustly accused himself of having lost a day, for he faithfully performed the important duties of his

* See No. V.

station: if he enacted wise laws for, and attended to the prosperity and happiness of his numerous subjects; if he guarded them from foreign violence and domestic commotions; if he governed them with justice and humanity; if he encouraged them in the practice of virtue, and the discountenance of licentiousness, he certainly found sufficient employment every day of his reign; and days thus occupied, though none of them were distinguished by favours bestowed on individuals, were certainly not days which deserve to be ranked among those, which are lost their owners or to humanity.

My correspondent seems to be one of those who do not think they have done enough, when they have supported by their exertions themselves and their families, and performed all those things which would entitle them to the appellation of good citizens and honest men. He seems to aim at something more, at distinction justly acquired, a sure proof that he possesses an elevated mind; a grovelling one aims at nothing but self gratification, and if a love of distinction has by some unaccountable accident entered into it, the possessor builds his hopes of celebrity more on external show or great possessions, than on intrinsic worth or great actions. But Maltronio has mistaken the means of effecting his purpose; his whole attention seems to be occupied in forming plans to promote it. What was the determinate object of his wishes, we are not informed, and can only conjecture that he intended to peform some great action. This is the mistake into which many a benevolent projector has fallen: they are continually revolving in their minds some mighty project, in the (too often) vain hope that futurity may enable them to execute it.—This is the case from day to day; every opportunity of conferring small and cheap favours is neglected, as though they were collecting their strength for one great effort. Time however steals on, unmindful of human resolutions and human designs; age arrives without the advancement of the work, and then they regret that they have wasted their time to no purpose.—They remember with regret how many opportunities have passed by, and will not return, and die without having done any thing but formed good resolutions.

It is certainly praiseworthy to do for our fellow creatures what few, either from want of inclination or of power, are able to do; and perhaps, at the time when the minds of some men are busily engaged in forming vast designs for the good of society, they would be executed with pleasure, were the means placed within their immediate reach; but when, by constant and unwearied toil, for many an anxious year, they are at last in their power, the possessors seem just then to become sensible of their value, and how little they can spare from their resources after their own wants are supplied. By this time they have become old; all the visions of their youth are dissipated, and they have reached that period which Maltronio so much dreads, when all the more delicate sensations which agitate the youthful breast are chilled by the winter of indifference.

VALVERDI.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

### THE TOMB OF ALEXANDER.

THE discovery of the supposed memorial of a western conqueror, in a country which entombs so much native greatness, wealth, and learning, is itself a very striking incident; while, on the present occasion, we need not say that the images of Grecian and Egyptian story mix themselves very finely, in every English mind, with the recollection of other victories and other tombs than those of Alexander the great. Researches, therefore, into the history of this valuable bequest of ancient times, are in some degree useful, when considered merely as ministering to the pleasures of imagination. Whe-

ther their utility stops here, and whether the imagination be not the faculty principally concerned in them, are questions not very easily answered. Yet, when it is once settled that the study of antiquities, however overvalued, is not without its use, and prefers, on this ground, a clear title to our regard, it certainly is not necessary to make out this title in every particular instance.—To demand this, were about as reasonable as to ask, why care is taken to turn, with the finest precision, every volute and olive-leaf on the capital of a lofty column, although these minuter graces are hardly distinguishable from below? Every thing must be done carefully, that nothing important may be done ill.—Besides this, the spirit of experimental philosophy requires us to accumulate observations, although we should not always be able to figure out to ourselves the specific shape and magnitude of the benefits which may accrue from them. If we fail in our principal inquiry, we are often rewarded by obtaining some unhoped collateral advantage, which overpays our labour and our disappointment.

This sarcophagus was forcibly taken from the mosque of St. Anthanasius, in Alexandria, by the French, in spite of the howlings and lamentations of the inhabitants, to whom it was the object of superstitious veneration; and on the capitulation of Alexandria to the British, it fell into the hands of the conquerors. It had then been long removed from the sight and adoration of the people of Alexandria; it was already destined for Europe; however it might have been obtained by the French, it was to the British the prize of war; lastly, it was a most tempting article; and on all these accounts, it was seized, brought into England, and placed in the British Museum, where it now lies, a wonder to the ignorant, and a riddle to the wise. Though the acquisition of this treasure by the victorious English stands on very different ground from the lawless seizure of it by the pretended deliverers of Egypt, yet it seems a nice inquiry, whether conquest strictly conferred the right of taking it away, and whether the feelings of those, to whom it had previously belonged, were sufficiently consulted in this transaction.

The capitulation of Alexandria being already on the tapis, Dr. Clarke was commissioned by lord Hutchinson to enter the city, and obtain the surrender of the monument of Alexander, which report had already made known to the English. Dr. Clarke set forward on this expedition, accompanied by two other gentlemen. The following extract from his account of it, will give our readers a very favourable idea of the manner in which an antiquarian can draw up a narrative.

They had scarcely reached the house in which they were to reside, when a party of the merchants of the place, who had heard the nature of their errand, came to congratulate them on the capture of Alexandria, and to express their anxiety to serve the English. As soon as the room was cleared of other visitants, speaking with great circumspection and in a low voice, they asked if their business in Alexandria related to the antiquities collected by the French? On being answered in the affirmative, and, in proof of it, the copy of the Rosetta stone being produced, the principal of them said, "Does your commander in chief know that they have the tomb of Alexander?" They were desired to describe it; on which they said it was *a beautiful green stone*, taken from the mosque of St. Athanasius; which, among the inhabitants, had always borne that appellation, The instructions from Cairo evidently referred to the same monument. "It is the object," they continned, "of our present visit; and we shall show you where they have concealed it." They then related the measures used by the French; the extraordinary care they had observed to prevent any intelligence of it; the indignation shown by the Mahometans at its

removal; the veneration in which they held it; and the tradition familiar to all of them respecting its origin.

They were then told that it was in the hold of an hospital ship, in the inner harbour; and being provided with a boat, it was there found half filled with filth, and covered with the rags of the sick people on board. Nothing could equal the admiration with which they viewed this beautiful tomb, having never seen, among the fine works the ancients have left, an instance in which nature as well as art vie with each other to such perfection. True indeed are the words of Denon, *Qui peut être regardé comme un des morceaux les plus précieux de l'antiquité:* and strictly does the appearance of it correspond with the description given by Diodorus of the shrine constructed for the body of Alexander.

This sarcophagus is one entire block of green Egyptian *breccia*, and is covered with hieroglyphics. Its dimensions are as follows: its height is three feet ten inches; its greatest length, for it swells out towards the head, ten feet three inches and a half; its greatest breadth near the head, five feet three inches and a half; its least breadth, at the foot, four feet two inches and a half.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## WILLIAM PENN'S GRAVE.

CONSTANTINOPLE, Alexandria, in Egypt, and our own Philadelphia, are, I believe, the only eminent cities in the world, the founders of which are certainly known, and whose foundation may be considered as springing from the will of one man. In old times, the founders of cities were revered as deities, within the cities they founded, and though christianity has abolished all claims of this nature, it has not destroyed the propensity natural to mankind of revering, with a sort of fanciful idolatry, the memory of public benefactors. In Europe, it is still fashionable to consecrate the remains of eminent persons, by placing them within what is called holy ground, and marking the spot where they lie by tombs, monuments, and inscriptions; but this is not the case with the honest people of Philadelphia. Their friends and relations are indeed respectfully enough treated, but as to eminent persons, where are their ashes deposited? what monument signalizes and distinguishes the spot? Penn, whose genius founded our city, lies nobody knows where. We cannot tell whether he died on this side of the ocean or the other. Like philosophers, we are satisfied that he existed to our benefit; that he died like other men we readily believe, but where his bones rest nobody asks or cares. Yet I own I have so much curiosity as to make this inquiry of your readers. Some of them perhaps can tell me where he died, and where he was buried.

O.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THOMSON'S VERSIFICATION.

ONE of the most striking faults in Thomson's versification is its resemblance to rhymed verse. Sometimes, indeed, his periods take a wider sweep; but, for the most part, he is contented with blank couplets, interspersed with now and then a triplet, or a broken connecting verse. His lines are not absolutely *bachelors;* but he rarely admits polygamy in his versification. Take an instance near the commencement of his Spring.

To check this plague, the skilful farmer chaff
And blazing straw before his orchard burns;
Till all involved in smoke his latent foe
From every cranny suffocated falls:
Or scatters o'er the bloom the pungent dust
Of pepper, fatal to the frosty tribe;

Or, when the envenom'd leaf begins to curl,
With sprinkled water drowns them in their nest:
Nor, while they pick them up with busy bill,
The little trooping birds unwisely scares.

These lines are undoubtedly blank verse, but they have not its peculiar character; and the ear is disappointed at the end of each couplet by the failure of rhyme.

The objection to rhyme is the restraint which it throws on the fluency of periods; but Thomson has injudiciously sacrificed the ornament, without profiting greatly by the liberty. Some expressions in his description of Lavinia have great beauty; but the whole bears the appearance of having been written with rhymes, and afterwards *done into blank verse.*

Another glaring defect in the work of Thomson is that singular incoherency which pervades the whole poem. The author seems indeed to have thought that the introduction of the word *now* was a sufficient link to connect subjects most widely separated by nature. For instance, after more than a hundred and thirty lines on the golden age, the depravity of modern times, the deluge, and the Pythagorean predilection for vegetables, he suddenly transports his reader to the side of a trout-stream, equipped with rod and line.

*Now* when the first foul torrent of the brook, &c.

Again, after a long address to lord Lyttleton, he abruptly breaks off with

Flush'd by the spirit of the vernal year,
*Now* from the virgin's cheek, &c.

The third important error in Thomson's style is the laboured, pedantic, and injudicious phraseology, which frequently destroys the effect of ideas the most happily conceived and skilfully detailed.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## ON THE STANDARD OF TASTE.

SOME are inclined to deny the existence of a standard of taste, from the versatility of fashion, in dress, building, furniture, and the like. But dress and furniture are not, generally speaking, the objects of that mode of judgment or feeling, which we call taste. There is nothing naturally gratifying to the imagination in the shape and workmanship of a chair or a chest of drawers, a pelisse or a petticoat. Ruffs have given way to lawn handkerchiefs, and velvet suits to plain broad cloth; green, blue, and red have succeeded each other scores of times in the approbation of the fashionable.—What then? Are there no real grounds, in such matters as these, for preferring one fashion to another? There are, very frequently; and for the following reasons:

Good sense, which is a necessary ingredient in good taste, prescribes that every work of human art should be calculated to promote its own proper end, whether that be pleasure, as in the fine arts, or the prevention of evil, as in most of the mechanical. Every thing, therefore, in the decorations of dress, building, or furniture, which is repugnant to health, comfort, or convenience, is clearly wrong; and such fashions have seldom been permanent, even with the multitude.

In such of the fine arts themselves as are connected with purposes of utility, eloquence, architecture, and gardening, any palpable deviation from those purposes, even though attended with pleasure to the imagination, is offensive to taste itself. Further, if articles of furniture or dress can be so ordered as to suggest delightful trains of ideas to the cultivated mind; ideas, for example, connected with classical or feudal antiquity; or to present graceful forms and agreeable combinations of colour to the lover of painting, they become, in the strictest sense,

objects of taste, because they aim at that end, the pleasure of the imagination, their tendency towards which it is the province of taste to estimate. Fifty years since, this seems to have been little more thought of in Great Britain than ornamental architecture in the days of Alfred; and it is as unreasonable to bring either of these *improvements* as proofs of mutability and caprice in matters of taste, as to infer a like caprice in agriculture and manufactures, from the introduction of the drill-plough and the steam-engine. The high state of practical art in England, and, much more, their increasing attention to the sculpture, great and small, of that marvellous people, from whom their knowledge of excellence, in almost all the objects of taste, has been derived, have wrought an uncommon revolution in their decorations of every kind. But this is rather like a newly-acquired sense than a change of taste: for it should ever be remembered, that neither an individual nor a nation can be said to show a preference, in point of taste, to one thing above another, unless the two have been fairly set before them at the same time. With regard to the notions of female beauty, obvious examples of diversity in human taste are drawn from the repugnant sentiments in these matters of a voluptuary of Congo and one of France or England, but we cannot help thinking that the colour of the Europeans is intrinsically superior to that of their sable rivals. This has been proved in an elegant and satisfactory manner by Uvedale Price, in the third volume of his Essays on the Picturesque.

Varied and harmonious reflections of light and colours are certainly not immaterial in beauty, since beauty of colour consists in nothing else. But, what is far more important, the physiognomical expression, the eloquence of the countenance, the symbols which, by a kind of natural telegraph, indicate the transitory emotions of love, modesty, and delight, or the more permanent glow of healthfulness and youth;

> The bloom of young desire, and purple light of love;

are intimately allied with that complexion, which could never be praised in a toast of Tombuctoo. As to *form*, it would be difficult to prove the inferiority of the Ethiopian. Many negroes, from their symmetry, strength, and activity, give us the idea of masculine beauty. But in the beauty of women, we are led away by sympathies and associations of a peculiar kind. A woman of a different colour seems at first a creature of a different species; and as our opinion of beauty in that sex is commonly attended with some degree of love or desire, it cannot exist where any circumstances excite associations of disgust. But this cause can never be fairly tried, unless the two races were intermixed in a state of civil and intellectual equality with each other: an experiment which has not yet been made; since, in the East and West Indies, the moral relations of the two are so dissimilar, that full scope has not been given for the determination of physical preference.

After all this, however, has been cleared away, there still remains a prodigious difference in the sentiments of mankind in matters of taste. This will not be found in the decisions of men as to models of acknowledged excellence, where a hardy rebellion against established authority would bring down on their heads the penalties of critical high treason. It is not quite safe to call Handel an indifferent composer; and nobody but Mr. Pinkerton treats Virgil as a poetaster. But, where the public voice has not had time to declare itself, it is not surprising what variety of opinion is sure to be expressed. Let any one, conversant with literary society, go over in his mind the opinions which he has heard from his acquaintance, as to the chief works of poetry that have been published during his time.

How frequently he finds, that, of two men, who esteem alike the great masters of the art, one will raise a living poet almost to the level of those masters whom the other treats as quite contemptible. Nor is this confined to poetry. The stage is deservedly accounted an object of elegant criticism. Yet, as to the art of declamation, we have had very recent experience, that men of discriminating and cultivated intellects may discover transcendant excellence, where others, equally gifted, can see nothing but mediocrity. We have been often struck, at an exhibition of the Royal Academy in London, with the various characters which are conferred on the same pictures by the motley multitude who flock to criticise them; till, after some days, a few pictures obtain, from those who are real judges, a decided character, which cannot afterwards, without the imputation of bad taste, be contravened. Even those, however, who in poetry claim a right *to please themselves*, as their phrase is wont to be, acknowledge the authority of positive rules in painting: and the fact of so great a diversity of opinion as to the latter may lead us to suspect, that there is some way of accounting for that which exists as to the former, without giving up the reality of a right and a wrong in matters of taste.

There are three causes to which we may ascribe most of this contrariety of sentiment, with respect to the productions of the fine arts. The first is want of feeling; that is, inability to enjoy, in any great degree, the pleasures of the imagination. Every body knows, that persons wholly destitute of a musical ear cannot have any relish for the excellencies of that art; and their pretensions to criticism in it, if they are unwise enough to make any, only tend to render themselves ridiculous. But it does not seem to strike every body, though it is equally true, that the souls of a great portion of mankind are just as obtuse, with regard to poetry and other matters of taste, as the most ill-constructed organ can be to the distinctions of tones and semitones. The judgments of such men must be perpetually wrong, because, as they are incapable of receiving pleasure themselves, they can only know by conjecture what will excite it in others. It is true, that there are few candid enough to confess this general insensibility to the works of imagination. But we are persuaded, that those who look narrowly, will find it exceedingly common; and the prevailing manner of the time, the contemptuous apathy, which stops so many pleasures in their source, is at once the proof and the effect of what we have advanced.

Men are often mistaken in points of taste, through want of knowledge. The principles of the fine arts are founded partly on general nature, and partly on arbitrary rules. But to judge of general nature requires much attention and experience.—Whether, for instance, the character of Achilles in Homer is justly and naturally delineated, cannot be decided by every one. We meet with no such men in the streets.—We must previously form notions of human nature, as general as possible, dropping all local and individual characteristics. We must enlarge our views of it, by the study of ancient manners, and of its state in countries remote from our own. Arbitrary rules, it is still more evident, must be understood, before we can know whether they are preserved. But these rules are, in all the arts, numerous and complicated, and very easy to be confounded by unskilful judges.

Men are often misled, through hastiness of decision. It seems to pass for ignorance or dulness, if a man hesitates to give his opinion in a moment on a poem or a picture.—Men of reflection are sometimes astonished at the readiness with which people pass sentence upon works, which it would take them some days to appreciate. For, when we consider the comparison of ideas, the ana-

logies of language, the parallelisms of former poets, which it is often necessary to run over in the mind, before we can ascertain the justness of a single metaphor, we may well think the power of deciding instantaneously on any given passage, a surprising proof of natural genius.—It is some consolation to dull mortals, that Mr. Burke seems to have wanted this faculty, and not given much credit to those who profess to exercise it.

Of these three sources of critical error, want of sensibility, most naturally leads men to dispraise what is good; and want of knowledge, to praise what is indifferent. This is, however, nothing like a general rule. Some are afraid to censure what they cannot relish; and a great many condemn what they cannot judge of. Precipitancy is an impartial failing, and scatters smiles and frowns at random.

Women are not often deficient in critical feeling, though it is not often much heightened by exercise. They have rarely, however, observed with sufficient comprehension, and scarce ever reflected with sufficient steadiness, to become knowing in the laws of taste. From these causes, and from having more modesty and good nature than men, they are apt to err on the side of admiration. Among men, on the contrary, among those particularly who aspire to be critics, a tone of fastidiousness seems pretty general.

The remedy for error in criticism is precisely the same as for error of any other kind: a diligent inquiry into truth. Criticism is a science, and taste can only be rendered accurate by much study and attention. As astronomy is not learned by casting our eyes on the heavens, so a taste in poetry cannot be acquired by lightly running over poems.

What is called, sometimes invidiously, metaphysical criticism, is the only real foundation for the principles of taste. For the more superficial style, such, for example, as the Prelections of bishop Lowth on Hebrew, or the Commentaries of sir W. Jones on oriental, poetry, will never satisfy the reader who would search to the bottom, nor afford an answer to those who deny the existence of any positive standard. Something, indeed, has been said by Johnson, whose critical notions, when not warped by personal prejudice, were usually acute and profound, about "the cant of those who judge by principles rather than perception." Without animadverting on the strange phrase of "judging by perception," it is a pity he has lent the sanction of his name to those, who, confiding in their own good taste, despise all philosophical inquiry into principles, as chimerical and unnecessary. Nothing is more truly *cant*, either in morals or criticism, than the language of those, who profess to decide from the impulse of their immediate feelings, without listening to so cold an arbitress as reason.

The laws of taste are partly natural, and partly arbitrary. Under the former class fall, in poetry and eloquence, whatever suggests associations generally delightful and interesting, or awakens sympathies which the constitution of mankind leads them to feel; in painting, truth of imitation, and forcibleness of expression; in music, gratification of the ear, and power over the affections. Under the latter may be reckoned what is called style in writing; and the observance of those rules with which critics are conversant, in the other arts. Architecture, in particular, mainly depends upon such rules; there being scarce any foundations in nature for the exact proportions of columns, limitations of ornaments, and the other *costumi* of the art.

Independently of these principles of approbation and disapprobation in the objects of taste, all men are more or less influenced by circumstances peculiar to themselves. Every one is, in many cases, the slave of accidental associations; and these operate even more powerfully in matters of taste where few are sufficiently used to reason, than in the conduct of life. The most vulgar in-

stance of this, is in our feelings of the beauties of nature. The house where we were born, the village where we have lived, the trees which have sheltered us, the mountains we have wandered over, have a claim on our hearts, more powerful than any which mere taste can create, but which we are apt to confound with the dictates of taste itself. It is the same energy of habitual sentiment that misleads us in many other subjects. In poetry, we often take a casual liking to a passage, for which, if we were to analyze our thoughts, we could give no reason. We repeat lines over, till we cannot get the chime of their sound out of our ears; and though we may gain from them no ideas worth attending to, we make up for it by associations of feeling.

Prejudices of education, so very common in critical decisions, seem to fall under this class. It is a general law indeed of our natures, that wherever ideas are the instruments of suggesting, by way of association, sentiments of pleasure or pain, we consider these sentiments as springing from the ideas themselves, without attending to the intermediate associations. It is plain, therefore, that such persons, as have never formed these associations, will not be affected by the corresponding feelings; and will falsely accuse themselves of want of taste, where taste, in a strict sense, has not been applied. The more hastily men judge, it must be clear, the more liable they will be to mistake their accidental associations for those of reason and comprehensive experience. It is for all men a matter of difficulty to be on their guard against such delusions. The imagination is the source of all error; and it is hard for taste to keep a rein over so restive a faculty. The state of our spirits and temper will make a mighty difference: a new poem is the worse for an east wind; and a good critic may execrate a good actor, when he found nothing but standing-room to hear him.

As there are rules of taste, which are absolute and universal, and founded only on the common nature of human beings; so the rules of ethics are universal, and obligatory on all intelligent creatures who have received the same constitution as ourselves.

As there are rules, which were originally arbitrary, and which are observed in conformity to certain standards, but the authority of which is not recognized in all ages, nor every where; so there are positive enactments, and customs prescribed by usage, in each particular country, by which those who live under them are bound to regulate their actions, though they cannot reasonably condemn others, who have never assented to their authority. Finally, as there are prejudices and associations which lead some individuals to admire and dislike, in points of taste, what would not excite kindred sentiments in others; so there are particular habits of thinking and acting, which every one acquires for himself: such as walking with a stick, or without one; eating mutton rather than beef, or beef rather than mutton; liking pink ribands better than blue, or the contrary; in which he does very well to please himself, and very absurdly if he attempts to impose the same opinions on his neighbour. But as, from the pride and obstinacy of mankind, such intolerance, absurd as it is, is far from unusual in trifling matters, it cannot be wondered at, that many should set down their acquaintance as dull or ignorant, who happen not to have formed the same associations with a tune or a poem as themselves.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## FRENCH LEGISLATION.

THE tumultuous manner of proceeding, among the legislators of the French revolution, reminds us of nothing but a zealous mob or a factious town-meeting in old Rome.—

Every circumstance amazes and afflicts an observer who has been accustomed to the dignity, solemnity, and good order which characterize the deliberative bodies of England and America. We are unable to conceive how public business could possibly be transacted amidst so much clamour and confusion, and are compelled to think meanly of a nation whose assembled representatives are total strangers to the common maxims of propriety and decency.

We are very familiar with the disorder of the convention. Their meetings appeared for ever verging to complete anarchy. It was extremely common for rival orators to enforce their rhetoric by grinning teeth, clenched fists, and brandished daggers; and a debate frequently ended in the president's abruptly putting on his hat, and the members rushing from the hall with one deafening roar of rage and phrenzy.

But though this is well known to have been the outrageous *costume* of of the convention, we have been disposed to consider the manners of the constituent assembly as somewhat less disgraceful. Let us hear an account of a meeting of the constituents, as given by the president, the celebrated Bailly, in his curious memoirs of his own life.

Upon a question which occurred June 16, 1788, about proceeding immediately to constitute the assembly, Bailly observes, "they had just begun to call over the names by my direction, when they were interrupted by cries and clamours, which made it impossible to hear any thing. They paused for a moment; but, as soon as the reading of the list was begun again, they were resumed more violently than ever. The scene of that evening gave me the impression of two armies on the eve of battle. A large table went across the hall. Before me, were those who insisted upon proceeding to the vote, to the number of three or four hundred. Behind were their opponents, about a hundred in number, all standing up, and crying and bellowing louder than the more numerous band of their antagonists. From this party I was assailed, with the most clamorous entreaties, to put an end to the sitting; and tumultuous cries and menaces resounded from all quarters of the hall. The large table was fortunately between the contending parties; *and, but for that obstacle, I am persuaded that several of them would have come to blows.*"

It is curious to observe the reflections which a scene like this excited in the wise and philosophical Bailly. They are truly characteristic of his nation. "The assembly (says he) never was more truly grand: and presented, indeed, at that moment, a most *august* and *imposing* spectacle. The president, calm and tranquil, and the great majority of its members in a profound silence and resolute serenity, which the cries and violence of their opponents could not disturb."

We have reason to think highly of the wisdom of Bonaparte, in making his legislators dumb, in prohibiting them from saying any thing but yes and no. We cannot conceive any other expedient for preventing riot and disorder.

R.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## KOTZEBUE.

KOTZEBUE is an indefatigable writer, who, true to the character of the literary German, only lives to print. I doubt whether any thing has of late years happened to him in life, or any idea has entered his mind, without a corresponding movement of his pen. Nothing stops by the way; nothing is treasured up for reflection or correction; and that any thing should be written down without coming to the press, is a case not to be supposed. Hence the vast quantities of bad paper, which are yearly made still more useless by the addition of bad printing, all over the German empire; hence

the careless and clumsy workmanship of almost all their treatises; and the multitude of strong men, who are withdrawn from the more useful and lucrative employments of common industry, to share the miserable pittance of the literary labourer.

Justice will not rank Kotzebue in this numerous and nameless rabble; but had his lot been cast in a country which manufactures only a tenth part of the books which are made in Germany, and had he, in consequence, written proportionably fewer himself, his name would have stood ten times higher in the estimation of men of sound judgment and correct taste.

Nobody can fail to remark the shortness of the interval which separates the performance of his journies from their appearance in print all over Europe. His execution has of late become still more rapid. He began his journey in autumn, 1804; and, after traversing Germany and Italy, landed of course in the printing-house before the end of winter.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## SCIENTIFIC STATE OF ITALY.

IT is singular that the intercourse and communication of science and knowledge should be more obstructed, than any other kind of intercourse, by local boundaries. We see, on many occasions, the difficulty with which works the most highly esteemed in one country become known, even to the most learned men of states situate in its immediate vicinity. Every one knows how long the immortal works of Bacon took to make their way across the British channel. The commentator on Kant's Philosophy has informed us of the slowness with which a system that occupied every head on the right bank of the Rhine, crossed over to the left; and all Germany had been for twenty years busily occupied with romances and freemasonry, before it was suspected in England that such was the passion of the Germans.

When we compare with this tardy and difficult communication of tastes and scientific lights, the rapid and hourly intercourse of ordinary commerce which unites the most remote quarters of the globe, we shall at least find reason to conclude that the interest excited by speculative pursuits is of a kind very different in vivacity from the common desire of gain, and the gratification of our more sensual appetites. The bill of exchange which Mr. Bruce drew in the depths of Abyssinia, where no European had ever before penetrated, was duly presented for payment in Lombard-street. The small gold coins of ancient Greece and Rome have survived the lapse of ages, when objects of infinitely greater real value, and of far more easy preservation, have only left the renown of their names to the present generation; and the trifling boundary of the Alps has locked up from the rest of Europe the knowledge of many scientific works, which, on the northern side of those mountains, would have spread themselves with rapidity over all the studies of England and France.

There are, in the different states of Italy, a greater number of scientific institutions, important for the ardour of their researches and the regularity and value of their publications, than in any equal portion of territory in the rest of Europe. Neither the multiplied divisions of political society which have place in Germany, nor the more compact monarchies of England, France, and Spain, nor the crowded and busy population of Holland and the Netherlands, furnish any thing like the same number of distinguished academies. Besides a multitude of minor institutions devoted to the cultivation of the fine arts, and several medical academies, which have not as yet published memoirs, for example, those of Pisa, and Pavia, there are, in the north of Italy alone, a ve-

ry narrow district, and placed in circumstances not the most favourable to the calm pursuits of science, no fewer than five learned bodies, only one of which is ever mentioned in the north of Europe, and even that one very seldom referred to. The memoirs of the academies of Mantua, of Milan, of Padua, and of Turin, are all works of great merit. The latter is the only one ever quoted in England and France, probably because it is the only one that publishes its transactions in French.

But more important than all these is the fund of original science contained in the transactions of the Italian society of Verona. They are published in large volumes with great regularity, and contain a succession of most interesting memoirs on all the subjects of physical and mathematical science. Nothing can be conceived more perfectly rigorous, and at the same time more simple and elegant, than those geometrical investigations of the Italian mathematicians.

The societies of Bologna and Florence are famous, especially the latter, for their scientific researches; and, not to extend the catalogue of this bright constellation of genius, the transactions of the Neapolitan Royal Academy contain some of the finest researches, particularly on mathematical subjects, of which any modern institution can boast.

The insulated labours of individuals have kept pace with the progress of public institutions. Of these, except a few anatomical tracts, and the late astronomical discoveries, none have as yet been made known in the northern parts of Europe.

All the scientific researches of the Italians display the most happy capacity for the pursuits of true philosophy. There is a distinctive character in their speculative inquiries, as well as in their schools of the fine arts. We meet with the same chasteness of style in the rigour of their induction, utterly void of that love of dazzling novelty, and that proneness to flimsy hypothesis, which distinguishes many masters of the French school; and equally remote from that dull and unprofitable fondness for mere facts, which characterizes the German daubers. We are not, it is true, so often astonished by grand discovery. We do not meet with the hand of a Black or a Lavoisier, any more than in their galleries we can expect to be arrested at every step by the vigour, the mighty force of a Rubens. But we find nothing to disgust by its tasteless flatness or its unchaste ornaments. We are constantly delighted with elegance, subtlety, ingenuity—with that which best deserves the name of fine genius: a proneness to reason and combine, but to reason by combining facts: a love of speculation, but joined to a nice capacity for observation: a strong passion for the exercise of the rarer and more beautiful powers of the mind, without any unfitness for the patient work of persevering and long sustained attention to details: a preference equally strong for efforts of original genius, and of that kind which partakes of the fancy, and bears a relation to refined taste: a considerable degree of contempt for the mere exertion of memory and labour—the business of the linguist and the verbal critic—the work, the bodily toil performed hourly in all the book-maker shops of the three hundred states of Germany. In short, if nothing very sublime in the walks of scientific discovery has appeared among this fine and ill-estimated people, they have given birth to numerous and varied works of great beauty and exquisite ingenuity. They can show, even among the masters of their present school of philosophy, many Titians; and, as they once produced a Raphael to guide the pencil, we may expect to see them worship their own Newton, perhaps before either France or England shall have given birth to a great master in the fine arts, and long before any one has arisen in Germany, capable of cutting the canvas, or mixing the colours.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THE MARVELLOUS IN POETRY.

POSSIBILITY is used in two senses; one absolute, one relative. That is not possible, in the first sense, which implies a contradiction, and which therefore no power could perform: that is not possible, in the second sense, which human, or some other given power, cannot perform.

It is possible, in the second sense, to build a bridge over the Schuylkill, at Philadelphia: it is possible, in the first sense, to remove New York into Jersey; that is, it implies no contradiction, and might therefore be done by indefinite power.

A credible impossible is nonsense, if *impossible* be taken absolutely; for what is contradictory cannot be believed. But it is sense to say that a relative impossibility, that is, an action assigned to a power really inadequate, may be rendered credible in poetry: and of this the Homeric fictions are very good instances.

The prowess of Achilles, Orlando, and Arthur is impossible; that is, beyond the power of man: but, by the art of the poet, we are made either to overlook that impossibility, or to overcome it, by enlarging our conceptions of the power.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## WILLIAM MORGAN.

AN original letter written by a quaker is a real curiosity, when published; for such a thing I scarcely ever remember to have met with, except in works which are entirely confined to the quaker library. The following, therefore, may interest some readers on this account, as well as on account of the singular character and extraordinary adventures of the person to whom it relates.

*Staines, 5th month* 11, 1747.

ESTEEMED FRIEND,

I return thee thanks for the perusal of these four volumes of Plutarch, and beg the favour of the other four, with that wrote by Nathaniel Rowe; and, if it be not too much trouble, Burnett's History of his Own Times.

I should have sent these sooner, but since the time called Christmas we have had a flood, that the row-barge could not go to London for some time, and then the master of the barge broke, which made me defer sending until I thought I might do it with safety.

I intend to order the waterman to call at thy house in about two weeks for the above. If it does not suit thy leisure, please to appoint him any further time.

When I was at thy house, I was talking about William Morgan, once a hireling priest, but now a friend, that went with a message to the king of Prussia; thou desired me to inquire where he lodged; I did so, but could not hear, only that he was going to Holland to study physic; he did so, passed examination, wrote a thesis, and commenced graduate. He was introduced unto the duke* in Holland, and had a long conversation with him. The duke asked him what he intended to do now he had thrown off the gown? William Morgan told the duke he intended to practise physic, and that he had wrote his thesis. And who do you intend to dedicate it to? says the duke. To the duke, if he pleases to give me leave. Then be sure you don't flatter me, and tell me what you intend to say unto me. The duke offered him money, but he modestly refused, and told the duke he could not accept of any thing out of his own way. Then, replies the duke, you shall be my physician, and attend me in the army. But, says William Morgan, I must first consult my friends in London; if I can obtain their consent, I will obey the duke's commands, for I shall be unwilling to break with the society for any temporal consideration.

Friend Morgan has liberty from his friends to attend the duke. I

* Of Cumberland.

presume he is gone again to Holland to take his degrees as licentiate and wait on the duke, though he apprehends it to be a post of great danger, and doubts whether he shall see us any more. Yet he confides and trusts in that gracious Providence that has preserved his life through so many distresses and wants, and I hope will still protect the duke and him in the day of battle, when death and destruction are flying round.

About a month or six weeks ago, friend Morgan called to visit a friend in this town, as he went to visit his brother in Winchester, who is a clergyman, and has preferments in the church to the value of 800 per annum. He had a meeting here, so by that means I had the pleasure of hearing him preach and pray: a very good preacher we think him to be; he spent one evening at our house, and very agreeable company he is. He has the advantage of being very personable, of a fair, beautiful, and sweet aspect, very affable and free in conversation; much of a gentleman; one who, I presume, did great honour to his religion and country in foreign nations. He gave us a short relation of his travels in an elegant style and with great freedom. He says the king of Prussia took him for a spy, and asked many questions about his uncle king George, and if he did not send him, and behaved exceedingly rough, and is a very fierce man, and the queen mother a very stern woman. The king often sent one of his ministers to his lodgings to examine him very close.

Friend Morgan was taken prisoner at Prague, while in the hands of the French, and used very cruelly, almost with the loss of his life, by the jesuits; when marshal Belleisle heard of it, he was so kind as to send a hussar, and took him away by force. I think it was the second time of his going into Germany, that he had an audience of the empress queen. She asked him many questions concerning the principles of his religion, and spoke with great judgment and good sense, and highly commended the charity of the quakers, and thought it great pity they did not put themselves under the wing and protection of the church. Friend Morgan had a long conversation with her with great freedom. He says he met with none that speaks Latin so correct and elegant as the empress queen, except the pope, and that she is an exceeding fine woman.

She ordered him a passport and letter to cardinal Albani at Rome, which gained him admittance unto the pope. The cardinal told the pope there was a quaker, an odd sort of a man, that desired an audience of his holiness, but refused to submit unto the usual ceremonies in such cases. The pope had a curiosity to see so strange a sight as *a quaker at Rome*, therefore, to avoid giving offence, he granted him twice the favour of a private audience, without any ceremony, in a house in his garden, in the morning before the time of his levee, alone without any company, and behaved with great civility, good nature, and exceeding free in discourse. The pope told friend Morgan that he had heard of an ignorant enthusiastic sort of people in England called quakers, but had no notion they were such a society, and maintained such principles as he assured him they did. The pope seemed very well pleased with his conversation, and ordered him an ample passport through his dominions. Friend Morgan says he heard the pope has several times attempted to make a reformation in the church, but the cardinals always oppose him, and have even dared to threaten him with the inquisition, so he thinks it not prudent to proceed.

William Morgan was taken prisoner by the Spaniards, and stripped of every thing except his passports; before they set him at liberty, they made him promise to go home through France. 'Twas in the Spanish camp he heard the first news of the intended invasion from France, and the expedition into Scotland, and wrote unto the duke of Newcastle and lord Carteret, and gave

them the first notice they received about it, but they gave no credit unto his intelligence. Since he came home he has been introduced unto the king, and he showed the king the copies of the letters he wrote to his ministers. The king was displeased because they had not communicated them unto him, and said he was of opinion, they might have taken proper measures, and prevented the rebellion. Henry Pelham offered him money as a reward, but he refused, and said he had no other view but to serve his king and country. Friend Pelham would have persuaded friend Morgan to put on the gown again, but he told him he did not leave it off with any such design.

According to his promise to the Spaniards, friend Morgan came through France 600 miles, 300 on foot, sometimes almost starved, and forced to beg. When he came to Lyons in France he was almot naked; no shoes, hardlv any stockings, his feet bleeding, his beard long, a Spanish cap on his head, his spirits quite low and sunk; with some difficulty he got courage to speak to some persons he saw talking together in the street, to inquire where there was a banker lived: one of them took pity on him, called a coach, and went with him to the banker's; but when the banker came to the coach side, and saw such a poor miserable creature, he started back.—But friend Morgan by his eloquence and tears melted him to compassion and tears also; then he handed him into his house; when friend Morgan had told him the extreme want and distress he was in, ready to perish, this stranger was so uncommonly generous as to order his servant to fetch a bag of money, and desired friend Morgan to take as much as he wanted, and then sent his servant with him to the best inn in the town, and bid his man get a tailor, barber, &c., and send unto him to furnish him with every thing necessary.—Friend Morgan, as soon as he could get himself clean and dressed, went to pay his respects to his good friend the banker, but he did not know him again, until he assured him he was the same poor distressed man that came in the coach; he invited him in, and was pleased with his conversation. Since friend Morgan came home, he has returned the money with great thanks and a handsome present.

Since I came home I very often reflect with great pleasure on thy felicity and uncommon good fortune in meeting with thy husband, one who, I humbly presume, suits thy taste in every respect. While I was reading the following beautiful lines in the Museum on Conjugal Love, the idea of your exalted happiness came into my mind. "Of all the pleasures that endear human life, there are none more worthy the attention of a rational creature than those that flow from the mutual return of conjugal love. When two minds are thus engaged by the ties of reciprocal sincerity, each alternately receives and communicates a transport that is inconceivable to all but those that are in this situation; from hence arises that heart-ennobling solicitude of one another's welfare, that tender sympathy that alleviates affliction, and that participated pleasure that heightens prosperity and joy itself. This is a full completion of the blessings of humanity! 'Tis here that the noblest passions of which the human soul is susceptible join together, virtuous love and friendship; the one supplying it with a constant rapture, and the other regulating it by the rules of reason." Hearts like yours, glowing with religion and virtue, must be sensible of a peace and satisfaction unknown to those who seem to have no ideas or taste beyond the narrow limits of this momentary life. Yours extend to infinite duration, and will be ever blooming, ever new, to millions of ages. That agreeable complaisance on one side, and easy condescension on the other, makes your conversation all over charms. May the sweet union be long, very long here, and at

length may your love and virtue be crowned with glory and immortality is the sincere wish of

Thy very obliged friend,

SARAH BOCKETT.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## PRESENT STATE OF SPAIN.

DIAMETRICALLY opposite to the French, the Spaniard of to-day is the same as in the time of Charles V: he retains the same customs and the same manners. So far from boasting of being the ape of Europe, the *servum pecus* of English manners, he is ambitious of being at all times consistent with himself, and of preserving and transmitting to his posterity the habits of his forefathers. Even the national costume has undergone only a trifling alteration; the principal officers of the country, as the judges, alcades, and corregidors, preserve the same dress as that which was worn by those of the kingdoms of Castille, Leon, and Arragon, before their union under the same crown. The native of Andalusia, Valencia, Catalonia, and Navarre, has his particular dress, to which he is attached, and which he associates with the valour and the glory of his ancestors. Even such of the young men as are styled *curutajos* (coxcombs), when they shape their coat according to the Parisian fashion, still contrive to adapt it to the Spanish taste. This *Gallomania*, which has spread over most of Europe, has hitherto made little progress in Spain; and, in spite of the crowds of Frenchmen which have inundated that country, since the peace of 1795, no visible change has taken place in any thing but dress. I mean not to assert that Madrid contains *no* subscribers to the *Journal des Modes:* but they are very few.

The peace establishment of Spain is 59,796 infantry, 12,000 cavalry, 5,400 artillery, and 1,400 miners. During war, the infantry is augmented to 98,200, and the artillery to 6,000. There are, besides, 2,100 provincial grenadiers, and forty-two regiments of organized militia, which are computed at 32,000 men. The prince of peace, generalissimo of the land forces, has introduced some wholesome reforms into the military department, and has established a regular staff, which was formerly unknown in the Spanish army. The command of the troops is vested in the generalissimo, seven captains-general, one hundred and three lieutenant-generals, one hundred and sixty-two maréchaux-de-camp, and two hundred and sixty-three brigadier generals. The pay of a private soldier is equivalent to 5d. sterling per day. There is a school for the artillery at Segovia, and one for the engineers at Zamora.

The Spanish navy, two years ago, was reckoned at fifty ships of the line, and fifty-seven frigates. According to Jobellanos, an economical writer, the Pyrenean districts might supply the royal dock-yards with building timber for several centuries. The vessels constructed at the Havannah are of cedar, which possesses the convenient property of admitting a shot without splintering.

If from temporal we pass to spiritual warfare, we find a muster of 69,170 secular, and nearly 100,000 regular clergy. As the grandees and the church share almost all the lands in the kingdom, we need not question the strength of their influence on the people at large. Most of the prelates, however, have urgent claims on the esteem and affection of the public.

They are all rich, from the great possessions attached to their sees: but their wealth is that of the poor. Instead of gilded carriages, and footmen covered with lace, you find at their palace gates none but the wretched, who wait for the hour of the distribution of alms. Indigent females, though of a respectable situation in life, and unfortunate men, who have been plunged into distress by unforeseen accidents, crowd their antichambers, and never depart un-

relieved: "for, throughout Spain, the prelates are the principal benefactors in their districts, and all of them expend a large portion of their revenues in alms*."

In the season of affliction, when the wrath of heaven weighed down a kingdom formerly "most christian," the faithful priests, who fled from unavailing martyrdom, found comfort and assistance in the charity of these virtuous prelates. What insensible heart would not have melted into pity in the palace of the bishop of *Orensè;* a palace converted into religious barracks, occupied by three hundred ecclesiastics, the bishop confining himself to the narrowest apartments, eating in common with those who were proscribed for the faith, supplying them with all the necessaries of life, defraying the board and lodging of those whom his mansion could not contain, and all this without diminishing his ordinary charities to the poor of his diocese.

The archbishop of Toledo, cardinal Lorenzana, during the whole time of the persecution, not only employed a very considerable revenue, but contracted debts, that he might lodge and maintain the French ecclesiastics in his diocese: for the archbishop of Toledo is, at the same time, bishop of Madrid.

The same archbishop, out of his own revenue, repaired the Alcazar of Toledo, an ancient residence of the Gothic kings, and, in this palace, founded establishments for the support of the indigent, from infancy to death. Two hundred children were here educated with care; seven hundred poor people were here employed in the weaving of silk; and here the aged found a hospitable asylum.

The bishop of Cordova, in the dearth of 1804, the principal cause of the maladies which afflicted southern Spain, distributed among his poor diocesans twelve thousand rations of bread daily. These were

Tableau de l'Espagne Moderne, vol. iii. p. 31.

his equipages, these were his retinue.

In Spain there are no formal invited parties, except at stated periods of the year, as on the name-day or birth-day of the master of the house, or on the marriage day of his eldest son (*mayorasgo*). These days are celebrated, not by a dinner, as elsewhere, but by a *refresco*, or afternoon's repast. All the relations and guests repair in the evening to the house of the entertainer. In a saloon, richly decorated and well lighted, the women take their places on one side, and the men on the other. There is no blending of the sexes, nor any general conversation; every one whispers to his neighbour. After a short interval passed in this manner, valets de chambre, and footmen in full livery, arrive in procession, and hand a silver plate to each of the guests. When every body has been thus provided, the same servants return, with large silver salvers loaded with glasses of water, *espongados**, and chocolate. This first offering is generally ill received, as the party reserve themselves for the second. The same salvers then again make their appearance, but charged with ices, sherbet, and iced waters of all kinds, as lemonade, orangeade, &c., sweet-meats, biscuits, and cakes. This distribution lasts longer than the first, because each salver makes a pause before each individual, who never leaves his place, in order to prevent confusion; and as, in such a great variety of dainties, each requires time to chuse according to his taste, this second scene is long. A third opens, but it is merely a repetition of the second, and destined for those whom one service of ice could not satisfy. At the fourth, nothing is seen but baskets full of paper wrappers, of all sizes, and each guest helps himself according to his views. The fifth scene at length commences, and displays to the admirers the same salvers and

* A sort of light, sugared, and perfumed bread.

baskets profusely heaped with cakes, comfits, biscuits, and every conceivable variety of sugar plumbs. Each person concerned fills his wrappers, of which the number is usually determined by that of his acquaintances, who ought all to partake of the *refresco*. When all have made up their parcels, a last service is presented, but only for the sake of form, for it goes off untouched, and is destined for the domestics, who repeat in the anti-chambers what has just been transacted in the saloons: they too eat their ices and fill their wrappers. While the servants are thus intent on the booty, the company in the saloon mingle together, and make ample amends for the silent constraint to which they had been subjected during the ministration of the refreshment. An hour thus passes.

The *refrescos* are infinitely superior in point of magnificence and cordiality to the English *routs*, the merit of which consists in silently jostling one another in apartments too small for one half of the people invited. The end is the same, but the means are very different and less agreeable.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## EASE IN STYLE.

—Ease in writing comes from art, not chance,
As he moves easiest who has learned to dance.

IN poetry, painting, and the rest, we measure the excellence of the workman, and in a great degree of the work, by the supposed difficulty of its performance, and consequently the rareness of the talents which must have been exerted on it. With the greater ease such a work seems to have been executed, the greater is our estimate of the power applied; but the *ut sibi quivis speret idem*, is quite another sentiment. Who flatters himself that he could have chiselled the Apollo, or written the Iliad? And it is on this account that what is called simplicity and ease, in the lighter kinds of writing, is seldom sufficiently prized by inexperienced persons. There seems to them nothing more than what they could have done themselves; and it is a curious fact, that, while we seldom fail to rate our own productions high enough, we scarce ever bestow much praise on such works of others, as we think ourselves capable of equalling. It is not till, by trials of composition, or by observing the frequent failure of others, we learn its real difficulty, that the masters of unaffected grace, Xenophon and Cæsar, Addison and La Fontaine, acquire that esteem, which we give at first, in an excessive degree, by a similar misconception of the talents required, to a brilliant and figurative style, whether in verse or prose. Of a certain sort of excellence, then, *ut sibi quivis speret idem* may be a characteristic; but that which is transcendant seldom fails to bear the stamp of those rare and inimitable energies, by which it has been created.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THEODORE, KING OF CORSICA.

THEODORE, rendered so celebrated by his exploits and misfortunes, was the son of Anthony, baron Neuhoff. His father claimed his descent from one of the most noble and illustrious houses in the county of *la Marck;* but he had disgraced himself in the eyes of his family, and excited the indignation of the neighbouring nobility, by following the dictates of love and honour, and marrying the daughter of a merchant of Niseu! In consequence of *this offence*, which may be termed a *German crime*, since it is less easily expiated there than any one in the decalogue, he repaired to France, where he soon after died, leaving a son, *Etienne Theodore*, and a daugh-

ter, Elizabeth, behind him. The duchess of Orleans took the orphans under her own immediate protection. The boy was appointed page to the duke regent, who gave him a company in the regiment of *la Marck*, and the girl, after attending for some time on the person of her benefactress, as maid of honour, was married to the count de Trevoux.

Young Neuhoff, who is said to have imbibed a heroic ardour from the perusal of Plutarch, served under Charles XII, and was employed by his minister, the famous baron Gortz, in a diplomatic capacity at the court of Spain, whence he was sent, by cardinal Alberoni, to England, in order to sound the jacobites.

After this, we find him a colonel in the Spanish service, and the husband of lady Sarsfield, daughter of lord Kilmallock, of the kingdom of Ireland, who had taken refuge in Madrid, and become a maid of honour to the queen, in consequence of the attachment of her progenitors to James II. By this lady he had a son.

Theodore, who had been disappointed in his expectations of riches, from an alliance with the noble family of Lucan, repaired to France, entered into Law's wild projects respecting the Missisippi company; and soon after the bubble had burst, set out for Florence, where he remained some time as minister plenipotentiary for the emperor. There he formed an acquaintance with prince Louis, of Wurtemburg, then commander in chief, and many of the principal families of Corsica; and having landed in Aleria, one of the ports of that island, on the 15th of March, 1736, to the surprise of all Europe, he was unanimously elected king, on the 15th of April following. His crown consisted not of gold and precious stones, but of a branch of laurel, after the manner of the ancient heroes; and the joyful inhabitants, hoping for a speedy deliverance from the yoke of Genoa by his means, pierced the air with the shouts of "LIBERTY FOR EVER!—LONG LIVE THEODORE I!"

His proclamation is worthy of the occasion, and breathes a masculine spirit, well suited to the deliverer of an oppressed people.

Soon after his elevation, he instituted one of those military companionships whose traces are to be found among our German ancestors, but which philosophy has nearly brought into contempt, and termed it the ORDER OF DELIVERANCE; he also struck money with the arms of his kingdom on one side, the reverse was in express conformity to the ignorance of the people, who were, and still are, abjectly superstitious, merely because they are contemptibly ignorant. It consisted of the image of *the blessed virgin!* The legend was strictly appropriate, and the idea that it conveyed, criticism apart, must be allowed at least to have possessed aptitude:

MONSTRA TE ESSE MATREM.

SHOW THYSELF A MOTHER!

Another coin may be still seen in the cabinets of the curious, impressed with T. R. (THEODORUS REX) in Roman characters, and dated 1736. The reverse is PRO BONO PUBLICO, with the value (*sol di cinque*) expressed in the field.

After a variety of adventures, this unfortunate prince repaired to England, where he found a prison and a grave; for John Baptist Gastaldi, the resident from Genoa, contrived that he should be arrested for 400*l.* for which he had procured him credit with a merchant in the city, and after lingering for some time, in great misery, in the King's Bench, he was finally cleared by an act of insolvency, in which he delivered up his kingdom to his assignees! He died soon after this, at an obscure lodging, No. 5, Little Chapel-street, on the 11th of December, 1755, and was buried in St. Ann's church-yard.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## THE FRENCH AND AUSTRIAN MILITARY CHARACTER COMPARED.

THE discriminating feature of the French army appears to be individual intelligence and activity; and it is a striking proof of the genius and talents of their generals, that they always either adopt or invent a system of military movements, suited to the discipline and composition of their troops.

The revolution deprived the French army of many of their best officers. Their places were supplied by men hastily chosen for that purpose, and in many instances incapable of commanding. Dumourier's army was composed of raw and undisciplined troops, who had no confidence in their officers, and were sometimes seized with a panic, even when no enemy opposed them.

Had France been a country of limited extent and population, she might have experienced the fate of Holland, the Netherlands, and Poland. Notwithstanding the discordant views of the allied powers, there was a moment when every thing was possible; but they suffered that moment to be lost. Some facts related by Dumourier himself tend to support this observation; and it is not easy to determine what momentary success the combined armies might have had, if they had acted on a more vigorous and enterprizing system.

It is almost impossible, however, in forming an estimate of the probable issue of their designs, to lay out of view the difficulties arising from the local circumstances of the country, its almost impregnable frontier, and the population and extent of the interior. A most desperate and enterprising invader alone could have looked for success. A regular, cautious, calculating general had difficulties to encounter, which he could not overcome with the system on which he acted.

The retreat of the allied army gave the French confidence and courage; and the system of terror recruited their armies, and made them act with energy, even after a long series of defeats. Their generals were placed in a situation in which the loss of men was no object. The immense numbers which fell were replaced by successive levies; but the army was not in a state to execute manœuvres, or to make any movement at all complicated. A new system of warfare was therefore adopted, and pursued with success.

There were, in each of the fourteen republican armies, a few ancient officers, particularly engineers, and of the artillery, possessed of military acquirements: necessity, reflection, and the natural genius of Frenchmen taught them to devise a new species of warfare. Turenne, Condé, and their pupils had carried on a war of movements; next came that of sieges. Frederick the great had introduced a system of tactics and manœuvres, which he had brought to perfection. The French, fully aware that they could not give battles in regular order, sought to reduce the war to important affairs of posts. By a strange fatality, which attended the allied army, this system of desultory warfare seemed to be encouraged by the very foes they had to encounter. Instead of lines, that could not be preserved without difficulty, the French formed close columns. They reduced their battles to attacks on certain points, and sometimes on one only. By brigades constantly succeeding each other, and fresh troops supplying the place of those who had been driven back, they in the end succeeded in forcing the point attacked; and the Austrians made a *masterly* retreat.

The French were not less indebted for their success to the talents of their own generals, than to the stubborn indocility of their enemies. The Austrians, instead of availing themselves of the superior discipline of their troops, uniformly adhered

to their system of forming immoveable lines; and the French, by keeping themselves in a mass, were secure against the attacks of their cavalry.

When the seat of war was transferred to mountainous or difficult countries, close columns could no longer be made use of: the French at once perceived this, and, abandoning the system of close columns, formed immense bodies of *sharpshooters*, light infantry, and chasseurs. The French soldiers are peculiarly well adapted for this species of warfare; and, by availing themselves of the most trifling advantages of ground, they frequently forced large bodies of Austrians to retreat.

In the course of a few campaigns, the French armies, though they did not acquire a regular system of tactics, became able to move with great rapidity. As they did not pay much regard to regularity and precision, their movements were executed with greater velocity. In the midst of a movement that appears confused, individual intelligence enables every man to find his place; the manœuvre, instead of being performed in a body, is executed individually, and, for that very reason, with greater rapidity.

Moreau was the French general who adhered most closely to the old system of warfare. His military character differs from that of the other French generals: he was chiefly distinguished by his superior talents and science, while the others owed their reputation to the bold and daring manner in which they formed and executed their plans.

The effects of the revolution were not less conspicuous in the subordinate arrangements of the army. Their wants were supplied by requisition. When they entered a country, they had little or no baggage. Their losses from fatigue, disease, and famine, were never regarded by their generals; and, as most of their officers had been raised from the ranks, they received some consolation for the hardships and privations they endured, by reflecting on their former situation.

The French began to support their armies by levying contributions in the countries they came to. By abandoning the old system of forming depots and magazines, they certainly exposed their troops to famine, want, and disorder, and in many instances suffered from the fury of the inhabitants, who were exasperated by their excesses. With all these inconveniences, however, they appear to have reaped very important advantages from this mode of supplying their armies. Formerly, the movements of armies were anticipated from the magazines they had formed, and the position of their depots; and their route was retarded by the attention which it was necessary to pay to them. The inroads of the French armies were unexpected, and their progress was rapid. They calculated only on success; and they obtained it, by the unlooked for celerity of their movements, and the boldness and enterprise of their plans.

The idea of supporting an army in that manner was fully developed by Guibert; and the revolution, which has been a school of bold and daring experiments, has shown the correctness of his reasoning upon that and many other military innovations.

When we see these volunteers of liberty dragged to the armies with an iron collar fastened to their necks, when we consider that they are in great part composed of royalists or enemies to government; when we reflect on the disorder, the waste, the want of discipline, the misery, the maladies, and the state of the hospitals, which consume six times the number of men that perish in battle; when we see the soldiers incessantly on the point of mutiny, and sometimes freely indulging themselves in it; their officers, some of whom cannot even read; their generals, many of whom are grossly ignorant; while several who have risen to the rank of commanders

in chief were originally dealers in thread and needles (Jourdan), monks (Pichegru), physicians (Doppet), barristers (Moreau), common soldiers (Massena), dancers (Muller, Victor), carmen (Brune), quack doctors (Massot), painters (Cartaux), fencing masters (Augereau), cooks (Championet), &c., &c.; when we see soldiers of uncouth appearance, without the smallest show of subordination, and in rags, we cannot but ask ourselves the question, how it has been possible, that such an assemblage could have achieved military exploits of so distinguished a stamp?

In the explanation of these facts, it is to be observed, that the want of discipline among the French soldiers is more apparent than real. Though a French soldier is not chatised for ordinary offences, but is allowed to sell his effects, to be dirty, and to commit disorders, yet whatever is considered as an essential breach of military discipline is punished with the utmost severity. A distinction is thus made between what is personal to the soldier, and what relates to the service. His conduct on service is as exemplary as in any other army; and he makes it a point of honour to be vigilant and strictly observant of countersigns.

In their battles the French derive great advantage from keeping a body of reserve, composed of the best troops, and commanded by an able general. By concentrating their forces on the point of attack, instead of forming extensive lines, they are enabled to spare troops for that purpose. They generally commence the action with light troops. In that situation the courage of every individual is displayed; and the emulation excited leads men to the most daring actions. One great excellence which French soldiers possess, is that of penetrating into the state of the adverse forces, and of making an attack with rapidity and precision the moment they seem disposed to give way. Their sharp-shooters frequently succeed in deciding important actions; and if they are repulsed, they are protected by the reserve, which supports them, or attacks in its turn.

The battle of Marengo is a striking instance of the advantages which the French derive from their reserve; and on more than one occasion it has been the means of recovering a battle which was considered as lost. The French are much indebted for their victories to the use of horse-artillery, which was composed of picked men, and exposed on every occasion. Their other artillery, during the course of last war, was greatly inferior to what it had formerly been: it was however disposed in such a manner as not to retard the movements of the infantry; and no field pieces were attached to their battalions.

Secrecy, commonly considered important in military operations, was no object in the French army. When the general had a movement in view, the whole army knew of it; while at the same time a thousand other plans were talked of and discussed. A spirit of enterprise was thus kept up in the whole army, and their camps became schools of military instruction. In other armies, the officers and soldiers who have made a campaign are in general more ignorant of the movements which their army has made, than their countrymen at home. It is deemed necessary to conceal from them, as much as possible, not merely the movements to be made, but even those which have taken place.

History furnishes us with many instances of great successes arising from the discoveries and observations of common soldiers: and, indeed, where the minds of so many men are employed on one object, valuable suggestions must frequently be produced by their united efforts. In few armies is any care taken to discover or collect their observations. The French army affords every facility for that purpose. The commander has opportunities of availing himself of the information of the whole army. The generals of division, during the engagement,

receive the same assistance from the intelligence of the individuals who compose their columns. Their observations pass from rank to rank; and while those which were just were circulated, there was discernment enough to arrest the progress of those which were unfounded. It was thus that, amid the disorder and confusion which seemed to render the French armies ungovernable, and incapable of executing a plan, astonishing results were produced, because every one contributed to forward the common object, from his voluntary as well as personal exertions. Every officer and every soldier fought as if the orders they were executing had been their own. These circumstances have given a peculiar character to all the operations of the French army.

When a company arrives at a post, or on the ground which it is to occupy, the soldiers, from curiosity, example, the desire of appearing intelligent, and from the vanity inseparable from the French character, instead of lying lazily on the earth, examine the post in every point of view; they proceed to reconnoitre, and form their several plans of attack or defence. If attacked, they have the incalculable advantage of being acquainted with the ground, and of knowing beforehand all that can be done. It frequently happens, that the soldiers, without officers, conduct themselves not only with bravery, but with infinite ability.

The rapid advancement of generals from the ranks, is not surprising in such an army; and one campaign, in such circumstances, would form more officers than twenty in an army where promotion depended on purchase or court favour, and where every disposition to discuss the movements of the army was regarded as a crime. An officer, who afterwards rose to a very high command in the French service, is said to have sent to Paris a plan for an approaching campaign, when he was only a sergeant. It was remarked by officers who had occasion to converse with the prisoners taken by the Austrian army, that they seldom met with a French soldier who had not made some calculation of the force of the army he belonged to, and of the division he served with. An Austrian or British soldier seldom knows any thing beyond the sphere of the company in which he is posted; and in the old school this is considered as the perfection of military discipline.

The enemy does not seem to have derived any advantage from the want of secrecy which prevailed in the French operations. It was afterwards observed, indeed, that they had announced what they had done. True: but, amidst the infinite number of projects which were published, how was it possible to discern the real one? and, in many instances, a resolution is formed at the moment, in favour of one plan instead of another, as circumstances seem to favour it. It is a great mistake that the plans of the campaign were formed at Paris, and that Carnot directed the most trifling movements of the armies. Disputes about the execution of orders must have occurred, if the commanders in chief and those under them had acted on minute and detailed plans. In fact the latitude of the orders was such, that though the generals might go wrong from ignorance or design, they could hardly be guilty of formal disobedience. The French made their officers responsible for the event, not for the means which they employed. The instructions given to Dugommier, who commanded at the siege of Toulon, by the committee of public safety, were, *Vous prendrez Toulon, ou vous meriterez nos regrets.* These are very clear instructions, but, at the same time, very general.

It is much wiser to leave to the general the free choice of the measures which he is to adopt, than to tie him strictly down to the most perfect plan of a campaign that ever was formed in a cabinet. If any thing is prescribed beyond the general object in view, it is the result of

jealousy, of vanity, or of a fatal desire of commanding.

This system of plans and detailed orders, which the French were too wise to incumber themselves with, appears to have pervaded the whole Austrian service. The generals were there fettered by the instructions they received, and looked to the council of war with greater apprehension than to the enemy. They were always impressed with their responsibility for the event, and continually calculating the loss they might sustain, not only in men, but in military effects and artillery. A general who was defeated when attacked, was acquitted; but if he was defeated in an offensive operation, he was undone for ever: as if an army became secure against an attack by not making one itself. Their artillery, which was excellent, was made an incumbrance, instead of an assistance. It was a point of honour to preserve it at every risk; and the Austrian infantry would on some occasions have avoided defeats, if it had either had no artillery, or had consented to lose it.

The merits of the Austrian army, however, are not to be underrated. Though its defects, and the degraded state of their soldiers, who are reduced to the condition of automatons, must be acknowledged, it is as much superior to the French army considered as a body, as a French soldier, considered as an individual, is to an Austrian. The two great causes of the defeats of the Austrians were, the want of genius and enterprise in their generals, and their deficiency in light troops. Instead of adopting an original mode of fighting, calculated to display the superiority of their troops in discipline, they kept themselves in cordons and lines, in which their cavalry could be of no use. The French, who were thus enabled to calculate on their movements, exposed themselves in a manner which they would not have ventured to do had they been opposed by an enterprising enemy. Even when acting on the defensive, the Austrians ought to have made campaigns of movements, not of positions. This is illustrated by the example of Turenne, prince Eugene, and Frederick of Prussia, who, during their defensive campaigns, kept up all the activity and appearance of offensive operations.

The want of light troops was the chief cause of the defeat of the Austrians. Even when commanded by the archduke Charles, they suffered severely from this circumstance. By converting their light troops, which were so famous in the wars of 1740 and 1757, into a sort of regular battalions, they lost the qualities which fitted them for that species of warfare.

The Austrians might have supplied this defect in Piedmont, in Switzerland, and in Italy, by employing the inhabitants of these countries as light troops; but though their adherents were more numerous than those of the French, they made less use of them. Their losses, from want of light troops, were enormous when the war was carried on in mountainous countries. They acted on the principle, that a sufficient number of men will always defend their ground; whereas, among mountains, the advantages of ground are of more importance than numbers. From the desire of adhering to a system of regularity which could not be preserved, instead of occupying the heights, and placing their troops according to the nature of the ground, they remained collected at the bottom: they were in consequence outflanked and surrounded.

The French soldiers, who are more active, more enterprising and ready in availing themselves of every advantage of ground, will hang round bodies of men that are much more numerous than themselves; they molest, harass, and advance upon them, by means of the smallest shelter. The Austrians, in the mean time, preserve their rank and file; but their oblique firing has not the least effect upon men who

are either scattered about, or advantageously posted; while every discharge of the latter, being levelled at a considerable body, cannot fail of telling. When the Austrians advance, the riflemen withdraw, but return to the charge as soon as the Austrians retire again: the Austrian troop is thus harassed by an enemy that keeps out of its reach, and whose numbers, upon looking at the extent of ground which they occupy, appear more considerable than they really are. This method of fighting continues, until the losses they have experienced, and the inutility of resistance, produce discouragement and confusion; and, at length, the troops overwhelmed with fatigue, and thrown into disorder, either disperse, or lay down their arms. The French who would not have dared to meet the same Austrians in open field, have often defeated and taken thousands of them with some hundreds of men only: for, the instant their ranks are broken, the Austrians become like a flock of sheep dispersed, and incapable of reuniting. The coolness of the Austrians is inexplicable. The humiliation of surrendering their arms does not seem to affect them any more than the dangers of a battle. One would suppose, in considering their indifference, that it was nothing but the *finale* of a pantomime or ballet. The Austrians carry their fear of being outflanked or turned, to a degree which is at once ridiculous and extravagant; it might indeed be called a national disorder or weakness. They fancy themselves outflanked, or enveloped, at the very moment in which they might surround those, who have had the rashness to outrun them.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## FOREIGN LITERARY AND PHILOSOPHICAL NEWS.

EARL Stanhope has just printed at the stereotype office, for private circulation among his friends, a small work entitled, Principles of the Science of tuning Instruments with fixed Tones. Among many other observations that seem to merit the notice of musicians, his lordship says, "musicians and tuners are in the habit of talking of *the wolf* in the singular number. I shall, however, show in the sequel that there are as many as *five* wolves, in the quints, and major thirds, taken together, in all those instruments which have exactly twelve fixed keys, or exactly twelve fixed tones in each septave." He then gives directions how to distinguish these five wolves, with a table founded on them: and adds, "We have been in the habit of considering what is commonly termed the *wolf* as an inherent imperfection in every instrument which has exactly twelve fixed keys in each septave, whereas it is clearly proved, that, so far from the five wolves being imperfections, it is precisely the proper distribution of those wolves which produces that charming and essential variety of character, between different keys, which is one of the chief requisites in a well-tuned instrument." His lordship gives the following as the peculiarities of what he calls the Stanhope monochord: 1. The wire is not made either of brass or of iron, but of steel, which is very far superior. For, steel wire does not keep continually lengthening, as brass and iron wires do when they are stretched considerably. 2. The wire in this monochord does not, as usual, pull downwards on the bridges, but the whole wire forms one straight and horizontal line, by which means the moveable bridge, which determines the exact length of the wire, can be moved without altering the tension of the wire.—This is not the case when the wire pulls downwards on the bridges.—3. The ends of the wire are not twisted round the two stout steel pins which keep it stretched; but each end of the wire is soft-soldered in a long groove formed in a piece of steel which goes over its corresponding pin. This is a great im-

provement. 4. One of those two steel pins is strongly fastened on a brass slider which is moved by means of a screw with very few threads, which screw has a large micrometer head, minutely divided on its edge, and a corresponding *nonius*; so that the tension of the wire may be adjusted with the greatest precision, in order to obtain its exact pitch. 5. A slider is fixed across the top of the moveable bridge, and is moved by means of another screw with very fine threads; so that the length of the wire may be regulated with the greatest nicety in all cases. 6. The above mentioned slider which is on the top of the moveable bridge is adjusted to the steel rod or scale, not by sight, or by the coincidence of lines; but by means of mechanical contact against projecting pieces of steel firmly fixed on that steel scale, which method is incomparably more correct. 7. Each bridge carries a metallic finger which keeps the wire close to the top of the bridge whilst the wire is made so vibrate. 8. The vibrations of the wire are produced by touching it with a piece of cork, with the same elastic force, and on the very same spot each time, namely, at the distance of one inch from the immoveable bridge.

The great work on British cattle, will be shortly published by Boydell and Co., prepared under the superintendance of lord Somerville.—It will be published in numbers, in imperial quarto size, each containing two or more prints, from pictures painted by Ward. The history and descriptions, uses, merits, and defects of the cattle, with their adaptation to various sorts and situations, will be written by Mr. Lawrence.

The first fasciculus of the long expected Flora Græca of the late professor Sibthorp, edited by Dr. Smith, will make its appearance soon. It will consist of fifty plates, beautifully coloured, with descriptive letter press. This splendid work will form, when completed, ten volumes in folio, containing one thousand figures, executed by Sowerby from the drawings of Bauer.

In the British house of commons, July 2, 1806, lord Henry Petty called the attention of the house to the subject of vaccine inoculation, which had checked in a great degree the progress of a dreadful malady which had spread ravage and desolation over the world. He stated that the discovery itself, as well as the effects which have since been derived from it, were the results of the constant labour of an eminent physician, Dr. Jenner, who had devoted above thirty years of his life to this single object. This discovery was made in 1777, but it was not until the year 1788 that Dr. Jenner recommended the extending of the cow-pox by means of *inoculation*: in 1798, he was enabled, from a long course of successful experiments, to recommend the discovery to the people of England, and to Europe, in such a manner as to excite universal attention: in 1799, it was very generally introduced into America, not only among the more civilized inhabitants, but even among the Indians. In 1801, it was practised all over the continent of Europe with the happiest effects. Certain prejudices, he said, had greatly obstructed the progress of this most useful discovery in Great Britain, and in consequence of these prejudices the number of annual deaths from the small pox in London, which had been reduced from 1,811 to 622, had again risen to 1,685, so that they were fast approaching to their original amount. The measure he proposed was, that an address be presented to his majesty, praying him to direct his college of physicians to inquire into the state of vaccine inoculation, and its effect in destroying the small pox, and to report the evidence on the subject, and the causes which have retarded its progress in the united kingdom; and that this report should be laid before parliament. He hoped that this report would be ready before the commencement of the next session; and should it be favourable,

as he had every reason to expect, it would become a serious consideration with the house, what step should be taken to make the discovery as beneficial to Great Britain as it had been to other nations. It would also be a subject for their consideration, whether any reward at all adequate to the importance of the discovery, or worthy the character and liberality of Great Britain, had been given to a man who, by the entire application of his mind to this subject, had been enabled to render such important services, not only to Great Britain and to Europe, but to the world; services which would not be confined to the present generation, but which would be felt as long as the human race existed. The address was agreed to *nemine contradicente*.

The cadets at Woolwich will shortly remove into the new academy on Shooter's hill. The building, which is in the Gothic style, is calculated for the reception of one hundred young gentlemen, the officers and masters, &c., in the most convenient manner. This public edifice is said to have cost upwards of 50,000l.

A show of pinks, for a wager of five hundred guineas, between the gentlemen florists of London, and of Uxbridge and its vicinity, took place on the 24th of June, at the Hats, on the Uxbridge road; umpires were chosen from the most celebrated judges. The show consisted of six stands, with twelve blossoms of various sorts; three on each side. It was universally allowed, that a more beautiful display was never witnessed. After a most careful and particular scrutiny, the umpires decided in favour of the London florists. Mr. Stephens, a gentleman of great celebrity, as an amateur of flowers, proposed, after dinner, in the names of the London gentlemen, to show pinks the next season, for any sum not exceeding five hundred guineas, against all England.

A new edition of Clarendon's History of the Rebellion, in octavo, is just issuing from the university press. Another edition in quarto will follow it.

Grotius de Veritate Christianæ Religionis, with numerous corrections of the text, will be sent to press before the winter. The copy is just completed.

A new room, adjoining to the Bodleian library (formerly the law school), has been lately completed, and partly filled with ancient manuscripts, leaving spaces in the upper library for printed books. The principal manuscripts are those of Mr. Carte and bishop Tanner.

Accounts have been received from the baptist missionaries in Bengal, dated November 15, 1805, by which it appears that the converts had increased since the commencement of the year, from thirty-four to seventy. Three of the natives are preaching the gospel. The missionaries are proceeding in the translation and printing of the Old and New Testaments in four or five eastern languages, and they hope to accomplish the translation into all the languages of the east.

A catalogue of the particulars of the manuscripts, collations, and books with manuscript notes of the late James Philip D'Orville, Esq., purchased by the university of Oxford, in 1805, for 1025l. will shortly be printed.

Mr. Home has furnished to the Royal Society an interesting paper on the comparative anatomy and physiology of the camel, particularly on its stomachs and water-bags, in which it can retain a quantity of water sufficient to support itself for several weeks.

In the Antiquarian Society an account has been read of the splendid equipage and sumptuary retinue of the earl of Northumberland, at his embarkation for France in the reign of Henry VIII. The gospel of St. John in Latin, but written on parchment in Roman characters mixed with Saxon, was exhibited to the society by the reverend Mr. Milner. This volume is said to be 1,200 years old.

Mr. Davy has discovered that the

acid, which exists in minute quantities in the wavellite (the new fossil from Barnstable), is the fluoric acid, in such a peculiar state of combination as not to be rendered sensible by sulphuric acid.

A gentleman connected with the manufactures of Sheffield, has given the following description of the changes which take place in the various processes of hardening, tempering, hammering, burnishing, &c. "I took," says he, "a steel plate thirty inches long, twelve broad, and four thick; I hardened it in a composition of oil and tallow, and afterwards tempered it down to a spring temper; it was not so elastic as to recover its position after being bended; by hammering it to set it straight, it lost its elasticity; after being ground in the same manner as a saw, the elasticity became still less, having nearly returned to the same state as before hardened; it was then very uniformly heated till it became blue, when it recovered the whole of its elasticity: after being glazed bright upon a glazier coated with emery, the elasticity was found to be impaired, but in a less degree than when it was ground: the same effect was also produced by rubbing with emery or sand paper, and also by burnishing. The elasticity was invariably recovered by blueing, and hence this is always the last operation in the manufactory of elastic steel plate."

The following arrangement has been made at the Royal Institution for twelve courses of lectures, to be delivered the ensuing season, by the undernamed gentlemen. 1. On chemistry, by H. Davy, Esq., F. R. S. 2. On natural philosophy, by William Allen, Esq., F. L. S. 3. On English literature, by the Rev. T. F. Dibdin. 4. On moral philosophy, by the Rev. Sidney Smith, A. M., evening preacher at the Foundling Hospital. 5. On dramatic poetry, by the Rev. William Crowe, LL. B., public orator of the university of Oxford. 6. On zoology, by George Shaw, M. D., F. L. S., librarian to the British Museum. 7. On belles lettres, the Rev. John Hewlett, B. D., morning preacher at the Foundling. 8. On music, W. Crotch, M. D., professor of music in the university of Oxford. 9. On the history of commerce, the Rev. Edward Forster. 10. On drawing in water colours, W. M. Craig, Esq. 11. On botany, J. E. Smith, M. D., F. R. S., and president of the Linnean Society. 12. On perspective, by Mr. Wood.

A letter has recently been received from M. Rehmann, the physician in the suite of the Russian embassy to China, dated Kiachta on the frontiers of China, October 14th, 1805: in which he says that he has vaccinated a great number of the children of the Mogols. "These people (continues M. Rehmann) have retained the simple manners and customs of their ancestors. They live in tents, and still make use of bows and arrows, which they employ with such dexterity and precision, that when they went out with the Russians of the ambassador's suite they killed six times as much game as the latter, though provided with excellent fowling-pieces." He likewise writes that he has discovered a little portable pharmaceutic collection of Thibet, from which the science of medicine is likely to derive advantage.—It consists of sixty different articles, very elegantly wrapped in paper.—Among these are some remedies known in Europe; but with a much greater number the botanists attached to the embassy were unacquainted. The latter consist of small fruits, nuts, and some chemical preparations. M. Rehmann has procured a translation of the list of them, which was written in the language of Tangut. He proposes to bring with him some of these collections of medicines, which are much in use among the Bucharians.

Sweden was hitherto in want of a Swedish and French pocket dictionary, on the plan of the French and Swedish by Jonchere. This deficiency has been supplied by M. Nordforss.

Of the magnificent collection of views in Sweden, by Martin, which is to be completed in sixty plates, the

five first have appeared. These consist of three views of Stockholm, one of the mine of Dannemora, and one of the mine of Hogborn.

Colonel Skioldebrand, whose Picturesque Tour in Lapland is well known, is at present engaged on a history of all the public festivals in Sweden, which will be a splendid work with engravings. He is said to have received an advance of 12,000 rix dollars towards this work, of which great expectations are entertained.

The fifth part of Icones Plantarum Japonicarum, by Thunberg, has made its appearance; but it is likely to be the last the learned professor will publish, unless some foreign bookseller will undertake to give his admirable collections to the world.

M Schonherr, silk manufacturer of Stockholm, possesses a handsome cabinet of natural history, and has recently published an octavo volume with plates, entitled *Synonomia Insectorum.*

The Botany of Sweden, written in the Swedish language by a society of literati, and embellished with coloured plates, is proceeding rapidly. The 42d number has already appeared.

In the Academy of Sciences of Copenhagen, professor Bugge lately read a memoir, in continuation of the theory of terrestrial refraction, and on the method of calculating the height of mountains above the surface of the sea. Several mountains in Iceland have been measured according to this method by the officers Olsen and Vetlesen; and it has been found that the height of Wivelfield is about 347 fathoms above the surface of the sea, that of Wester Jokel 760, of Hekla 827, and of Ejafiella, or Oster Jokel, 921.

M. de Threbra, superintendant of the mines of Freyberg, and professor Lampadius, have lately ascertained, by repeated experiments, the relative temperature of the internal parts of the earth. Having placed, at different depths in the mines, two of Reaumur's thermometers, and compared them twice every day with another exposed in the open air, they found that whatever difference of temperature prevailed above ground, one of the two thermometers placed in the mines uniformly indicated 12° above zero, and the other 9½°.

M. Delambre has completed the printing of the first volume of his great work on the meridian, in 750 pages. It is intitled *Base du Système Métrique Décimal, ou Mesure de l'Arc du Meridien*, &c. It contains all the triangles formed from Dunkirk to Barcelona. The second will contain the bases, the azimuths, the latitudes, and the calculations of the triangles. There will probably be a third.

The Berlin Memoirs for 1802 contain observations by M. Bode, and calculations relative to the planets Piazzi and Olbers.

The Ephemerides of Vienna for the year 1806 contain a great number of longitudes determined by eclipses, as a sequel to the great work of M. Triesnecker; a memoir by M. Burg, to prove that Bradley's refractions ought to be increased; observations made at Vienna, Buda, Prague, Crems-Munster, Carlsburg, Naples, Palermo, Ratisbon, Amsterdam, Gotha, Milan, Munich, and Brunn, to the south of Olmutz.

M. Bode's Ephemerides likewise contain a great number of observations made at Berlin, Vienna, Petersburg, Bremen, Breslau, Prague, Wilna, Crems-Munster, Palermo, Upsal, Huth, and Dantzig, and calculations relative to the three new planets.

M. Poczobut and M. Treschka, astronomers of the university of Wilna, have made a great number of observations of the new planets, made in 1803 and 1804, with excellent instruments.

M. Ciccolini, an astronomer of Bologna, has published a Memoir of the Eclipse of the Sun on the 11th of February, 1804, which was supposed to have been total in Italy; but he demonstrates that this neither was nor could have been the case, from the diameters of the sun and moon

which are in Lalande's tables. Circumstances were as unfavourable for the observation in Italy as in France.

M. Ciccolini has made a useful addition to the reflecting-circle. He has formed the posterior part of that instrument into a quarter of a circle, the radius of which is the diameter of the instrument, and with a perpendicular and the telescope of the same circle he can ascertain, in half a minute of time, within half a degree, the altitude of the star, and at the same time the degree at which the glass of the telescope should be placed for taking the observation. In this manner you avoid the disagreeable necessity of groping with the fingers in observations of altitudes, the inconvenience of which has already been acknowledged by astronomers and mariners of high distinction. With this method the telescope may be made to magnify more than usual, which would be exceedingly advantageous in observations of this kind.

M. Lenoir has likewise made at Paris a pedestal with which one single observer may make use of the repeating-circle.

M. Augustus Pictet, of Geneva, has discovered a method of observing transits of the meridian by means of the reflecting-sextants, used at sea. For this purpose it is sufficient to fix, due west, a glass which shall be exactly 90° from every point of the meridian.

A second enlarged and revised edition of the valuable narrative of a Tour in England, Wales, Ireland, and Scotland, by professor Gode, has appeared in Germany.

M. Shutze, who four years since published the third volume of his *Holsteiniche Idioticon*, has completed the fourth and last volume of that work.

In the Scandinavian Literary Society at Copenhagen, M. Niebuhr, son of the celebrated traveller of that name, recently made a memoir, in which he showed how far the nations subdued by the Romans might have maintained or recovered their independence.

A splendid edition of the poetical works of the celebrated Schiller, with plates, will speedily make its appearance.

The worthy abbe Mann, who, as a member of the Academy of Brussels, formerly wrote various interesting treatises, and among the rest a very interesting description of that city, is about to publish, at Vienna, a work entitled *Principes Metaphysiques des Connaissances et des Etres*.

Sturz is about to publish *Maittaire de Linguæ Græcæ Dialectis opus auctum et emendatum.*

Dr. Hedwig is engaged upon a work entitled *Adambratio et delineatio Microscopico-analytica plantarum calyptrarum:* the first part of which, in folio, will speedily be published.

The garden Schwetzingen, near Mannheim, is reckoned one of the finest in Germany. Ten views of it are soon expected to appear, from drawings by Kuntz, and accompanied with a topographical, botanical, &c., description.

A German and English dictionary by Kuttner and Nicholson, after the English and German dictionary of Adelung, will soon make its appearance.

M. Nemnich's Narrative of his late Tour in England is expected with impatience.

The Teylerian Society at Haarlem has proposed the following questions as the subject of a prize essay, to be adjudged on the 8th April, 1807:—1. In what does the difference between natural and revealed religion consist? 2. Whether various publications have not appeared at different times, which tend to obscure this difference, and to cause the advantages possessed by christianity over the religion of nature to be forgotten? 3. Whether, in proportion as these writings are disseminated, and the two religions assimilated to each other in every point, the most fatal effects may not be expected to result to christianity, morality, and the happiness of man? The prize is a gold medal of 400

florins in value. The essays must be written either in Dutch, Latin, French, or English

A machine capable of being set in motion, and producing a powerful effect, without either the intervention of any combustible, the action of any current of water or of air, or the exertion of animal strength, but possessing within itself the inexhaustible principle of motion, would doubtless prove of great utility to mankind. Such is that of which M. Dodemant, professor of mathematics at Lyons, announces himself the inventor. At his request the prefect has directed two persons, M. Carron, chief engineer of the department, and M. Moller, professor of natural philosophy, to examine this machine.

A proces-verbal of the municipality of Lille, in the department of Vaucluse, has confirmed the success of a plantation of indigo in the open field, in a farm belonging to M. Icard de Bataglini. It is said, in the proces-verbal, that after an attentive examination of the indigo, the produce of this trial, the commissioners gave it as their opinion, that this valuable plant might be naturalized in the department, and at some future period become a principal source of its wealth.

The following decree has been issued by his catholic majesty the king of Spain, on the occasion of some experiments made at Carthagena, with respect to the efficacy of anti-contagious fumigations. "Don F. de Borja, commander in chief at Carthagena, having made known to the king, in different reports, the important services performed by don Michel Cabanellas, during the prevalence of the contagious distemper which raged in that place, his catholic majesty was particularly struck with the importance of the experiment made by him in one of the hospitals of the said city, where he shut himself up with fifty persons, in order to prove the efficacy of the acid fumigations; and actually slept with his companions, including two of his own children, in the beds where many patients had recently fallen victims to this terrible disease, without employing any other preservative means than the mineral acid fumigations, as directed by M. Guyton His catholic majesty, moreover, learned with the most unfeigned satisfaction, that the result of the experiment was so fortunate that the fifty-one persons, after having been strictly confined in this lazaretto, had come out of it in a state of perfect health. In consequence, and in order to afford a proof of his royal munificence, his catholic majesty has remitted to each of the galley-slaves who voluntarily submitted to this experiment (not having previously undergone an attack of the yellow fever) one year of the time they were sentenced to remain in chains; and he farther caused his approbation of their conduct to be notified to them by his captain general. To don Michel Cabanellas his catholic majesty grants the title and honours of physician to his majesty's household, with an annual salary of 24,000 reals, to be paid monthly from the funds of the community of Carthagena; at the same time is conferred on him a right of voting in the municipal body of that city, in the same manner as if he had been a natural-born citizen. The king, besides, charges himself with providing for his two children, whose lives, like his own, were exposed for the interest of the state and of humanity.

It is well known that when a current of inflammable air, projected by a pipe only a few lines in diameter, is burned under a glass tube, you hear certain harmonious, but very shrill sounds, which perfectly resemble those of the harmonica. An Italian philosopher has recently observed an effect which bears a great analogy to this phenomenon. Melting, at the lamp of an enameller, a glass tube wet in the inside, to blow with it the bulb of a thermometer, it emitted a sound which lasted several seconds, constantly increasing in loudness, but which could be stopped by closing with the

finger the open extremity of the tube. The explanation must apparently be the same in both cases. In the first, the combustion of hydrogen gas with a part of the atmospheric air forms, every moment, a very hot aqueous vapour, which by the speedy dissipation of the heat is condensed into water. Accordingly small vacuums are rapidly formed in the air, and as many successive approximations of its parts; and these sudden alterations produce in the air oscillations like those arising from the collision of a sonorous body. In the second case, by causing the humidity to pass from the tube into the heated bulb, the vapour is successively formed and decomposed there at very short intervals, and produces a similar sound in the tube.

## POETRY.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

[The following is one of the latest emanations from the declining lamp of the noted Peter Pindar. It is a whimsical and striking compound of the serious and the ludicrous.]

ODE TO THE RIVER FOWEY, OR FOY.

O LOVELY flood! on whose fair banks
I play'd, in early youth, my pranks,
And often sail'd thy clear expanse along,
And from thy bosom hook'd up fish;
Pollock and bream, a dainty dish,
Salmon and mack'rel, worthy epic song,
Lobster and turbot, and John Dory,
As nice as e'er were put before ye,
O epicures! and plaice and mullet,
Fit to descend a *royal* gullet!

Thy margin green and castles hoar,
Where heroes dwelt and fought of yore,
And smote the daring Gaul with dread,
Boast not a muse to sing their praise,
The tribute of immortal lays,
And cast a glory round their head.

Full oft, in summer's golden hour,
We made, in boats, a happy tour;
Full many a nymph, a nymph and swain,
And happy on a verdant bank
Our tea and well-cream'd coffee drank;
While music pour'd her strain,
Loud on the zephyr's pinions borne,
The triumph of the echoing horn.

The walks of Graham and Trefry,
The walks of Hall delight mine eye,
And pleasant valley of Lewire,
With villas on the winding stream,
That rather look of Fancy's dream,
And claim the muse's loudest lyre.

Though Britain's king and Britain's queen
Are every year at Weymouth seen,
Thy spirits let me cheer,
For hark! this instant on the breeze,
In sounds of thunder from the seas,
A voice salutes mine ear.

The Majesty of Ocean speaks!
And thus the god sublimely breaks:
"Ye rivers, list around!
Though some of ye on Britain's coast
May many a beauty justly boast,
And much with fish abound;
Though far and wide may fly your name,
Yet it shall be yon harbour's lot,
That pretty, yet neglected, spot,
To fill the largest trump of Fame.

"Should Amphitrite and her fair maids
Sigh for the shore and rural shades,
Variety t' enjoy,
I'd swear by all my brine and fish,
If such should be the ladies' wish,
I'll take a house at Foy."

*For the Literary Magazine.*

### A WISH.

*By Dr. Hawkesworth.*

THROUGH groves sequester'd, dark, and still,
Low vales, and mossy cells among,
In silent paths, the nameless rill,
With liquid murmurs, steals along:

Awhile it plays with circling sweep,
And lingering winds its native plain,
Then pours impetuous down the steep,
And mingles with the boundless main.

O! let my years thus devious glide
Through silent scenes obscurely calm;
Nor Wealth nor Strife pollute the tide,
Nor Honour's sanguinary palm.

When Labour tires, and Pleasure palls,
Still let the stream untroubled lie:
As down the steep of age it falls,
And mingles with eternity.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

### HYMN*.

*By the same.*

IN Sleep's serene oblivion laid,
I safely pass'd the silent night;
At once I see the breaking shade,
And drink again the morning light.

New-born—I bless the waking hour,
Once more, with awe rejoice to *be;*
My conscious soul resumes her power,
And springs, my gracious God, to thee.

O, guide me through the various maze
My doubtful feet are doom'd to tread;
And spread thy shield's protecting blaze,
When dangers press around my head.

A *deeper shade* will soon impend,
A *deeper sleep* my eyes oppress;
Yet still thy strength shall me defend,
Thy goodness still shall deign to bless.

That *deeper shade* shall fade away,
That *deeper sleep* shall leave my eyes;
Thy *light* shall give eternal day!
Thy *love* the rapture of the skies!

* Composed about a month before his death, and dictated to Mrs. Hawkesworth before he rose in the morning.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

### SONNET.

LET happy mortals love the blooms
That deck the bosom of the laughing Spring,
And, fann'd by her, profusely fling
To the young gale their delicate perfumes;
Stern Winter, thy congenial glooms
A mournful pleasure to that bosom bring,
Where pale Despondence spreads her wing,
Which Fate to ceaseless sorrow dooms.
It loves, than all the vernal pride far more,
Thy storms wild-howling through the forest bare;
Thy snows the plains that mantle o'er;
Thy mists that dim the burthen'd air:
Then Nature seems my sorrows to deplore,
To share with me in all my soul's despair.

---

*For the Literary Magazine.*

### DISAPPOINTMENT.

TEASE me no more, nor think I care
Though monarchs bow at Clara's shrine,
Or powder'd coxcombs woo the fair,
Since Clara is no longer mine.

Indifferent, 'tis alike to me,
If my favourite dove be stole,
Whether its dainty feathers be
Pluck'd by the eagle or the owl.

If not for me its blushing lips
The rose-bud opens, what care I
Who the odorous liquid sips,
The king of bees or butterfly?

Seeks the slave despoiled to know
Whether his gold, in shape of lace,
Shine on the coat of birth-day beau,
Or wear the stamp of George's face:

*For the Literary Magazine*

INSCRIPTION ON A JUTTING STONE OVER A SPRING.

THIS sycamore, oft musical with bees,
Long may its darksome boughs o'ercanopy
The small round bason, which this jutting stone
Keeps pure from falling leaves! still may this spring
Quietly, as the breath of sleeping babe,
Send up cold water for the wayfarer
With soft and even pulse! Nor ever cease
Yon tiny mound of sand its noiseless dance,
That at the bottom, like a fairy's page,
As merry, and no taller, dances still,
Nor wrinkles the smooth surface of the fount!
Here coolness dwell and twilight. Here is moss,
A soft seat, and a still, scarce-whispering shade.
Thou may'st toil far, and find no friendlier tree.
Here, stranger, drink! Here rest! And, if thy heart
Be pure from guile, here too may'st thou invoke
Refreshing slumber, wooed by every sound,
The gale that steals along, and hum of bees.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

SONNET.

ALONG the pebbly shore I love to stray,
And pore upon the wave with wilder'd eye;
Or watch the varying tints of sinking day,
That glimmer in the western sky:
And then the distant landscape I descry,
And white sails glittering in the parting ray;
Till deep'ning shadows veil the scenery,
Till all the fair perspective fade away:
Then long I linger on some rocky seat,
And listen to the surges as they roll
In murmuring undulation at my feet;
And oft I sigh for him who won my soul,
And shed the tear to musing fancy sweet.